

The History Teacher's Magazine

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CONTENTS.

| | PAGE. |
|--|-------|
| THE CONFERENCE OF GOVERNORS, by S. E. Forman, Ph.D. | 143 |
| HISTORY TEACHING IN THE MIDDLE WEST, by Prof. Samuel B. Harding | 144 |
| VASSAR COLLEGE INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN HISTORY, by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon | 145 |
| A COMMENCEMENT SUGGESTION | 148 |
| "ORIGINAL NARRATIVES OF EARLY AMERICAN HISTORY," reviewed by Prof. Charles M. Andrews | 149 |
| TRAINING THE HISTORY TEACHER, by Prof. N. M. Trenholme | 150 |
| THE YEAR 1909 IN HISTORY, PAPER II, by John Haynes, Ph.D. | 151 |
| THE FRESHMAN COURSE IN HISTORY | 152 |
| THE SPRING MEETINGS | 153 |
| ENGLISH HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL, by C. B. Newton | 154 |
| ANCIENT HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL, by William Fairley, Ph.D. | 155 |
| EUROPEAN HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL, by D. C. Knowlton, Ph.D. | 156 |
| AMERICAN HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL, by Arthur M. Wolfson, Ph.D. | 158 |
| HISTORY IN THE GRADES, by Armand J. Gerson | 160 |
| REPORTS FROM THE HISTORICAL FIELD, by Walter H. Cushing | 161 |
| List of History Teachers Associations; the Wisconsin Association; the Indiana Meeting; the California Association; the North Dakota Association. | |
| CORRESPONDENCE | 163 |

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The Conference of Governors

A Recent Development in American Government

BY S. E. FORMAN, PH.D.

The Origin.

In May, 1908, there was held at the White House in Washington a conference, the chief purpose of which was to further the conservation movement. The invitations to this conference were sent out by President Roosevelt. In his letter of invitation the President used these words: "I have, therefore, decided in accordance with the suggestions of the Inland Waterways Commission to ask the governors of the States and Territories to meet at the White House to confer with the President and with each other upon the conservation of natural resources." It is claimed that the original suggestion for the conference was made by William George Jordan, of New York. The full roster of the conference included the President and Vice-President of the United States, the members of the Supreme Court of the United States, the national Senate and House of Representatives, the governors of thirty-seven States and Territories, the presidents of about sixty scientific and commercial associations, the representatives of about twenty leading periodicals, thirty-eight general guests (chiefly experts in the employment of the government) and four special guests (Hon. William Jennings Bryan, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, Mr. James J. Hill and Mr. John Mitchell). Although the governors at the conference constituted only a little more than the twentieth part of the entire membership, the meeting nevertheless was generally known as a conference of governors, and it was given this official title.

Its Significance.

The conference attracted the attention of the entire country, and many widely diverging views were expressed in respect to its significance. To some it seemed to be only a dress-parade; others declared it was assembled for the glorification of the President; still others discerned in the meeting a mighty engine of centralization. As a matter of fact, the conference had no startling significance of any kind. It was simply what it purported to be—a meeting held in the interest of conservation. In the proceedings and discussions of the meeting the governors participated along with the other

members, but they held close to the main subject and avoided politics altogether. The conference undoubtedly gave impetus to the cause of conservation, but it set on foot no new movement, it established no new political organ, it gave rise to no political doctrine. It adjourned *sine die* without even effecting a permanent organization.

The Second Conference.

At the conference in 1908 it was provided that a future Conference of Governors could be called either by the President or by a committee chosen by the governors present and consisting of governors. In January, 1910, at the call of this committee, a second conference met at Washington with thirty-one governors in attendance. This second meeting was truly a Conference of Governors. It originated with governors, it consisted wholly of governors, and it was independent of presidential and other outside influences. Its meetings were held, not in the White House, but in the assembly room of a hotel. At their second meeting the chief aim of the governors seemed to be to determine the purpose for which a Conference of Governors should be held. When speaking of the aims of the meeting Governor Hughes said: "The scope of these conferences may be deemed to embrace at least three groups of questions; The first relates to uniform laws; the second relates to matters of State comity where causes of friction may be avoided and the general welfare may be promoted by accommodating action; the third relates to matters which, though of local concern, can be better treated in the light of experiences of other States." During the proceedings a resolution was offered asking Congress to enact a law regarding the jurisdiction of national courts, but the resolution was voted down on the ground that it went beyond the scope of the conference, inasmuch as it recommended action by the national Congress. It was the sense of the meeting that "the governors had assembled to decide if possible upon recommendations to their own legislatures for uniformity in laws." Two things were made clear in the second meeting: first, that in the future the governors would not touch

national matters; and, second, that the chief legitimate aim of the conference was to promote uniformity in State legislation. So we may regard the Governors' Conference as being one more device for securing through association the enactment of uniform laws.

In addition to "finding itself" and clarifying its aims, the second conference effected the beginnings, at least, of a permanent organization. It appointed a committee of arrangements and resolved that the conference shall meet annually, the meetings to be held at some State capital. The place and date of the meetings are to be fixed by the Committee of Arrangements.

The Future.

In the resolution to hold its sessions elsewhere than at the national capital, many persons high in official and public life see the end of the Conference of Governors. Such a prediction, however, is by no means perfectly safe. In the growth of most political institutions there is much fumbling and guess work at first, and we can never tell where a movement will lead. Still, when we regard the slender basis for effective organization which exists in the Conference of Governors, the outlook is not big with hope. The conference, of course, has not a shred of authority. "These men," said the chairman, Governor Willson, of Kentucky, "have no power except the merits of the thoughts they may bring to the meeting." Then the conference lacks the quality of cohesiveness. The forces that play within it are for the most part decentralizing and repellent and tend to render it unfit for united action. But perhaps the most unfortunate feature of the Governors' Conference is the temporariness of its membership. Governors are here to-day and are gone to-morrow. Of the forty-eight governors who were eligible for membership in the conference in 1910 more than thirty will be ex-governors in 1911. This constant change in personnel will perpetuate a state of newness that will be sure to operate against efficiency and that may prevent the conference from exerting its full strength.

History Teaching in the Middle West

BY PROFESSOR SAMUEL B. HARDING, INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

The department of History and the School of Education of Indiana University have just completed a tabulation of replies obtained to a questionnaire sent out, in the spring of 1909, to a number of schools in the Middle West. The full report will be issued as a bulletin of the university, and a limited number of copies will be available for general distribution. A summary of the chief results is given below.

Of the 137 high schools reporting, 32 offer four years in history, 15 offer three and a half years, 83 offer three years, 4 offer two and a half years, 1 offers two years and 2 fail to state their courses. Of the 32 schools offering four years' work, 2 require no history, 9 require one year, 2 one and a half years, 5 two years, 2 two and a half years, 6 three years, and 6 require all four years. Of the 83 schools offering three years, 1 school requires no history, 5 require one year, 18 require two years, 3 require two and a half years, and 56 require all three years. In nearly all courses reported, the work begins with a year of ancient history, with or without Oriental connections, followed by a year of medieval and modern (sometimes termed modern) history, a year of English history, and culminating in a year of American history and civics, if four years are offered. If the course consists of only three years, English history is usually omitted, or taught in connection with medieval and modern history.

With reference to methods of instruction, the practice of individual teachers was sought, rather than the policy of schools. One hundred and forty-three teachers answered the questions asked. With reference to pupils' collateral reading, the following was learned:

Only three teachers "do not require" collateral reading in any history work. The more usual practice is to require of beginning pupils a few pages each day in some simple account, the amount increasing and the quality including more abstract and difficult selections with advanced classes. "Five pages a day for the first year, and ten pages for other years;" "amount varies with maturity of class,—with advanced classes it would perhaps equal 50 per cent. of the amount covered in the text;" "the first year reading is brief, concrete and definite in character; this is gradually increased in intensity;" "very little is required in Greek history; we aim to have the Roman history students do from 4 to 8 pages a day, depending on the length of assignment; in modern, the minimum is 10 pages a day." These are replies showing the manner of varying the requirement. Nearly every teacher replying uses some means of testing the reading done by the pupil. Oral and written reports based

upon the reading; quizzing or questioning in class; written tests at unappointed times; reading-notes and digests; and formal report by slips, are the methods most favored, in the order named.

Concerning note-books, 18 say they require pupils to keep a permanent note-book in some or all of the history courses; 15 do not require it, or leave it to the choice of the pupil; 4 have abandoned its use after having required it; 2 make very little if any use of it; and the remaining 4 fail to reply to this question. As to the sorts of exercises entered, the following are reported: Digests or abstracts of reading; outlines of period or topic; maps and chronological outlines or charts; notes on other pupils' reports in class; text analyses; special dictations by teacher; summaries of periods; classified historical data; pictures and edited clippings; biographical sketches; special tabulations; source extracts; themes on historic movements or institutions; reference lists; comparative statements, and important deductions.

All but 21 teachers report that they require the preparation of some kind of written reports. Eleven have not required them in any form, 6 require none beyond note-book exercises, 2 have previously required, but have discontinued their use, and 2 fail to state their method. The common practice is to require of each pupil at least one extended report a semester, written up from all available authorities, with footnotes, marginal references, and appended bibliography. The authorities are mainly secondary, though some use is made of sources. Many require of each pupil, in addition, two or three less extended reports during a term. Sometimes topics are assigned which may be illustrated by models or drawings. In one school, a pupil prepared a report on Roman siege engines, and brought into class on report day models of the ballista, catapult, battering-ram, and siege-tower used by the Romans. These he operated in the course of his talk, hurling stones and arrows the full length of the school room, and showing the method of making a breach in a city wall. Most of his data was obtained from drawings in Payne-Gallwey's "Projectile-throwing Engines of the Ancients."

A great variety of means of fixing events in their time relations appear in the replies. Chronological outlines, selection of central or "focal" dates, synchronistic charts, mastering lines of rulers, mere attention to sequence, use of "time-units," are methods in common use. Most teachers use different devices, or a characteristic device, for each field. "I have found that pupils of high school age are at the right stage for the development of the time sense," writes an

Eastern teacher. "I do this by periods in ancient history, by centuries in medieval history, and by epoch-making events in United States history. Then I have little difficulty in getting the few necessary specific dates." Selection and mastery of a few central or "landmark" dates in each field, subordinating and coördinating all others to these, is the favored plan in dealing with dates. Other devices employed are chronological charts made by the pupils; synchronistic outlines or "block charts"; parallel columns; "graphs," etc.

As regards the preparation of the maps, 71 use printed outlines, 29 have pupils make their own outlines, 35 use both kinds, 4 use hektograph or blackboard outlines of their own making; only 2 use none at all.

One experienced teacher writes: "Our tendency is to make more and more use of sketch-maps, sometimes quite crude, each sketch to show a particular idea or set of relations. This necessitates a study of maps in connection with the ideas involved. Much such sketch work is done from memory, without seeking great accuracy of outlines, but definiteness and clearness of relations. Such work is often placed upon the blackboard." The following are indicated as subjects for such sketch maps: "(a) Series of sketches illustrating geographical knowledge of the Middle Ages (Ptolemy, Mela, Cosmas, Toscanelli, etc.); (b) maps showing trade routes; (c) sketch showing Portuguese explorations around Africa—the point reached by each navigator indicated by name of navigator and date; (d) important voyages shown on outline Mercator's maps; (e) sketch of St. Lawrence-Great Lake-Hudson Valley region, showing location of Indian tribes influencing the settlement of French and English (made in connection with a report on the subject, sketch being drawn on blackboard, and reproduced in note-books). This region is a geographical unit, with which the pupils become very familiar as time goes on." He adds in conclusion: "We try to make every map represent a definite idea, and so far as possible a single idea."

Some valuable miscellaneous suggestions were contained in the replies. Sometimes these are ingenious devices not brought out by the questions. Thus, one employs a "bulletin board" and a reading table for current history. In connection with this, an organized body of six or eight students, known as "The Associated Press," canvasses the literature once a week, and posts a classified list of the best articles appearing upon historical or political topics, together with names and dates of magazines containing same. Another finds the stereopticon, with an assortment of slides, a most valuable adjunct to the history teacher's equipment. Still another has

created enthusiasm in history by means of a "History Club," composed of students with a year's credit in history, and meeting outside school hours for a special history program.

One interesting suggestion embodied a device for quick-written tests. "From time to time," says this teacher, "I give what I call 'one-word tests,' consisting of ten or twenty questions which call for a date or a name by way of answer. The papers are exchanged and graded by the pupils, the teacher reading off the answers. The whole process takes not more than fifteen minutes, and I find it an excellent device for drill in definiteness and accuracy in regard to certain essential facts."

At other times, the suggestions appear as statements of methods of attacking the general problem of history teaching. "Emphasize the story side of high school history work," says one. "Can anything take the place of thorough preparation on the part of the teacher, and a willingness to dig on the part of the pupil?" asks another.

"Connect the events of the present with those of the past, and trace differences and similarities between the present and the past," is the recommendation of a third. "If some method could be found of accurately dramatizing the most important events, and the students could act or read their parts, it would materially increase their knowledge and appreciation of the past," is a suggestion full of possibilities. Another advises thorough mastery of the facts in logical relations, these to be interpreted and application made to present conditions.

Again, teachers bring out points of obvious difficulty. One wishes some one would write a text in American history, down to 1763, as an outgrowth of European history, with the story woven together in such a manner that pupils can grasp the entire movement as one thing. Another finds the problem of pronunciation of proper names in history a difficult one, and favors the use of those texts only which have a good pronouncing vocabulary; he thinks it important

that pupils acquire the habit of correct pronunciation on first meeting with a new name. "Fewer pupils and more time," is the terse statement of a common need. "Next, better equipment." Maps, pictures, and books should be furnished. "We need books in duplicate. To turn a whole class into a library where there are only two or three copies of a book is to play at doing things." Another finds it difficult to secure any appreciable "judgment work"; pupils are loath to leave the text-book prop, when it comes to solving historical problems.

The foregoing are but a few of the interesting results obtained from this investigation. Probably no one hard and fast method of teaching history, universally applicable, can be devised; but it is believed that, from the experiences of successful teachers, as narrated in this and similar reports, the person who knows history and has a natural aptitude for teaching can gain such assistance as will enable him in time to solve the more pressing difficulties of this troublesome subject.

Vassar College Introductory Course in History*

BY PROFESSOR LUCY M. SALMON.

It is probable that college teachers of history who stop to recall the changes they have made in their college courses during the past five years will find that they have made the most fundamental ones in the work of History I, as the introductory course in history is usually called. Certainly this statement is true with reference to the work in Vassar College, where the methods used in this course have for the most part been entirely changed, and but little remains of the system used even a few years ago. Were the student and teacher of history not expected to confine himself rigorously to the past, it would be a temptation to enter the field of prophecy and predict that equally important changes will come in the next five years. This description of our work is therefore confined to a statement of what we are doing at the present time, as a result of past experience, and does not enter into the unknown.

The keynote of the work of History I, has been happily summed up for us by President Hadley in a statement quoted by President Lowell in his inaugural address to the effect that the ideal college education seems to him to be the one where a student learns things that he is not going to use in after life by methods that he is going to use.

With such approval of method from high places, we are encouraged to say frankly and fearlessly that our chief aim in History I, is to use the subject matter with which it deals as a means of teaching a method of work that in the future may be of use not only in the study of history, but in the various problems of every day life.

The students come to us as a rule very well prepared in history, and our first aim is to make the college work in history develop naturally from what has been done in the schools. The introductory course is therefore, both as regards subject matter and method of treatment, based on the results that come from school work. This shows progress each year, and we hope to do our part in making corresponding improvement in our college work.

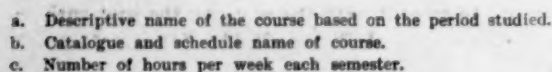
*The writer wishes to explain that the use of *we* is editorial, and that she does not wish to commit all of her colleagues in the department to subscription to all of the views expressed.

The students in the course number about 300,—sixty per cent. are freshmen and forty per cent. sophomores. They are divided into sections of twenty-five each, and for a certain number of these sections each officer of the department, except one, is personally responsible. The sections meet their instructor three times every week, and six times during the year all the sections meet together for a general lecture, usually illustrated. Each instructor during the year holds on an average five conferences with each student in her sections.

Each student is asked to bring with her the first time her section meets a pamphlet of about twenty-five pages called "Suggestions for the Year's Study." This pamphlet bears on its title-page two quotations: "Take these hints as suggestions, not as instructions, and improve on them as you grow in experience;" "Historical genius consists in an unlimited capacity for taking pains." The opening of the pamphlet is based on Herbert Spencer's theory of taking stock of progress, and gives a brief statement of the equipment the student presumably brings to her work,—from her science, ability to observe; from her mathematics, an ability to reason; a fair command of Latin and a fair reading knowledge of two of the three languages, French, German or Greek; from her English work ability to express clearly either orally or in writing the results of her work; and from her high school work in history a necessarily cursory acquaintance with some of the facts of ancient history, gained for the most part through the study of a single text with some collateral reading, possibly a little practice in notebook work and some training in reconstructing the past through the use of illustrative material. This is followed by a statement of what the student should gain from History I, both as regards the subject studied and the study of the subject, and under the last head are enumerated the ability to use books, to analyze material, to vivify historical facts, to understand the difference between reading history and studying history, to appreciate the difference between history and the historical record, to understand what the historian does in writing history, to connect the present with the past and the past with the present, since in the words of Bishop Stubbs "the roots of the

nomics, architecture, and other topics. The formation of a library is encouraged by giving various lists of books that may be purchased for about five, ten, fifteen, twenty and twenty-five dollars. The pamphlet closes with a suggestion of various essays, of which history has formed the subject, including those that treat of its nature, and its study, as well as its satellite, historical fiction. The final summary is a diagram showing the relation of History I, to other courses offered in the department of history. This diagram is reproduced below.

In following out this idea, the sections of the class sometimes collectively and sometimes separately, are given the first week of the college year an illustrated lecture on the library. Slides explain the uses served by the various parts of the building, as well as their historical development. The use of the card catalogue is also explained by slides, and slides again show sixteen different types of catalogue cards used for historical works. These various types of cards are carefully explained and, also by illustration, the meaning of the different styles of printing used in the typical books with which they are to work. It has proved a good investment of time to explain all these points most carefully, and to follow them up with a series of brief, simple problems given the individual members of the class. These problems are written on single slips of paper, the student takes her slip to the library, finds the answer to it, writes it on the slip with a statement of what she did in finding the answer, signs it, and returns it to her instructor. Some of these "practice problems" are: Where will you find good accounts of the Oracle at Delphi? How old is President Taft? Of what college is Governor Hughes a graduate? Where would you look for the Westminster confession of faith? What material can you find in the library on wireless telegraphy? Who were Oliver Cromwell's parents? Where can you find a good illustration of a flying buttress? Was Mozart considered a musical prodigy as a child? It is evident that these problems are of the "hit or miss" nature, and that they may or may not have an immediate bearing on medieval history, but the



d. A blank indicates that the course is given only one semester.
e. Double letters show that the course is continuous throughout the year.

involve the use of a large variety of works, and they are designed to give preliminary training in the material resources of the library.

Our work is much facilitated by the open shelf system used in the college library. Every student has free access to every book, and this enables her to gain the best results from the expenditure of a given amount of time. But the chief advantage of the open shelf is that it makes the student independent in her work, since it throws on her the responsibility of finding the book she wishes to use. This she is shown how to do by the lecture on the library and by the supplementary help given by the "Suggestions."

Great importance is attached to the personal conferences between the instructor and the student. The tutorial system of Princeton, the seminary system of Columbia, the conference system of other colleges are all alike indicative of a growing appreciation of the necessity of personal contact between instructor and instructed, of a recognition that there is no hard and fast line of division between the two, and that in the conference the two members may in turn take each rôle. These conferences could be made even more effective could the governing bodies of colleges realize that the unit of measuring the time given an institution by its officers should be, not the number of hours spent in the class room, but the number of students for whom each individual officer is responsible. The number of students in the department of history at Vassar College is about six hundred, thus each of the six officers in the department averages nearly one hundred students. Could the number be reduced to at most seventy-five, the conference work could be made still more effective. We have tried to some extent the plan of having assistants hold the conference, but it has not, with us, proved so satisfactory as that of reducing the number in the sections, and making it possible for every instructor to hold conferences with the students in her own sections. Group conferences have been found advantageous for the first conferences, since all those beginning college history have to be shown at the outset practically the same elementary methods. In the subsequent conferences the work is made entirely individual.

It will thus be evident that it is the pamphlet "Suggestions for the Year's Study," that is in the hands of every student, the careful explanation of library tools, the open library shelf, and the frequent personal conference with every individual student on which we rely for teaching the students the technique of elementary historical research.

By learning the technique of historical research we mean learning how to get at material on its mechanical side, involving an understanding of general library arrangements and the use of card catalogues, book catalogues, bibliographies, and footnotes; the knowledge of how to preserve material on its mechanical side, involving an understanding of how to make out a bibliography, how to take notes, how to classify notes, how to make out an outline, what material goes into the notes proper and what into footnotes, how to select the facts desired and how to turn over the pages that do not give these facts, to discriminate between the facts that are essential and those that are unessential to the object of the search, to realize that facts unessential to the study of one subject may be of vital importance to the study of another, to recognize a principle when stated, to differentiate a principle from a detail, to distinguish between primary and secondary authorities, to understand the use of sources as illustrative material, to distinguish between a generalization and a law, to be able to define and to understand the definition of the ordinary technical words and phrases used, to know that it is a matter of ethics as well as of historical accuracy to cite an authority accurately, giving chapter and verse for every statement used,—something of that spirit that as W. R. Thayer puts it, "would cross the ocean to certify a comma," to discriminate between authoritative and unauthoritative works, to cultivate historical observation through the study of different forms of historical material to be found all about them,—at Vassar College, in Poughkeepsie, in their home towns.

In attempting therefore to teach the technique of work with historical material, we hope the student will gain a knowledge of books on the mechanical side, how to get at historical material, how to preserve historical material on this mechanical side, how to use books as regards subject matter, to make intelligent use of the terms used, to be accurate both as regards authorities cited and the place of citation, to discriminate in the use of authorities, to cultivate the historical imagination and to find "tongues in trees, books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in everything." We believe it is inevitable that the mass of the details of history will in time prove evanescent, but that the facility gained in acquiring these details will be a permanent possession.

The inference must not be drawn that we are indifferent to the subject matter of history. On the contrary, the methods described have been devised to enable students to get as quickly as possible at the largest possible number of historical facts, and through this acquisition of facts to gain a bird's-eye view of the development of Western Europe from the time of Charlemagne to the end of the eighteenth century; to have a fairly clear outline, that can subsequently be filled in, of the progress of events during this period; to gain an appreciation of historical developments, of historical perspective, and an understanding of what is meant by the unity of history.

An effort is made to coöperate as far as possible with other departments, and this has been fairly successful, especially in the case of the department of English. The officers of the two departments not infrequently hold joint meetings for the consideration of questions of mutual interest; a joint bulletin board makes it possible to post the list of topics given to history students, and from these the students taking both English and history frequently use the material gathered for history as the basis of English themes; occasionally an article of a somewhat general historical nature is reprinted in galley form with numerous misprints and turned over to the students in both departments, incidentally as an exercise in proofreading, and directly as an exercise to promote keenness of observation; sometimes similar articles have been used by both departments as the basis of analysis of subject matter; the papers presented by students written in noticeably poor English are turned over to the English department for personal criticism; every encouragement is given the students to look for the historical aspects of the reading done in connection with English; in the outside reading done students are encouraged to select works that are on the border line between history and English or some other field obviously related to history; officers of one department are not infrequently invited to meet the students of the other department and speak to them informally of special studies they have made in fields common to both departments.

It has also been possible to coöperate regularly with the art department. Every year the professor of art lectures to the students of History I, on the historical origin of the types of architecture represented on the Vassar College campus, or on the architecture of the Renaissance, or a similar subject. The students are thus encouraged to make a direct connection between their work in history and the historical records that lie all about them.

It has not as yet seemed possible to make any open, regular and direct public connection between the work of History I and that of other departments, but every occasion is utilized that will show the inter-relation of the work in history and that done in other subjects.

Special emphasis is placed on the examination, not as a means of finding out what the students do not know, but as an instrument of bringing to a focus the various lines of work that to the students may have seemed unrelated, of presenting a paper that as far as possible will unify the work of the semester. The preparation of this paper is made the subject of several departmental meetings,—a principle is decided on that seems to unify the work, numerous questions and groups of questions are worked out with reference to this underlying principle, and by the elimina-

tion of those the least closely related to the main idea of the paper and the selection of those that best illustrate it a coöperative paper emerges that does not attain our ideal, but at least represents what that ideal is.

For the purpose of giving unity to the work the sections meet together six times during the year to hear a special lecture given either by the author of one of the books specially used by the class or by some officer of the department. In the first class have been included lectures by Professors J. H. Robinson, E. P. Cheyney and G. B. Adams. Through these lectures not only is the unity of the work done by the sections made evident, but the students are introduced to some of the larger aspects of history, such as comes through a discussion of the nature of history, the origin of the English nation, medieval books, reasons why history needs to be re-written, and the different ways in which history may be written. But the chief advantage gained is the personal connection established between the student and the author of a book she uses. It has also been found helpful from every point of view to have occasional lectures given to all the sections meeting together by different officers of the department. Thus each officer lectures from time to time on some special subject where original investigations have been made, and thus the students become acquainted with the historical work of the members of the department they do not regularly meet. Occasional lectures are also given by officers of other departments, and this helps to connect the work of history with other fields of knowledge.

It is a frequent complaint that reading is becoming one of the lost arts, and experience seems to show that it is becoming increasingly difficult to persuade college students of the joys of reading. We have on our part made increasing efforts each year to overcome this, and one of the means is the publication of a small pamphlet called "Suggestions for Summer Reading;" it takes up important periods or events of history, and suggests in the order in which they should be read the most interesting narrative histories, biographies, and works of fiction treating of this period. We have also asked the students to report from time to time in regard to the outside reading done, and a card catalogue is kept of the reports made. Outside reading we have interpreted to mean "any book, pamphlet, magazine, newspaper, or other printed matter that bears on history, or makes clear the connection between history and some other course, that is read voluntarily and not as an assignment for study in connection with a college course."

We also make an effort to create an intelligent interest in general historical material. Under this is included the preservation of historical material in the home towns of the students. Before a vacation blanks are sometimes distributed to the members of a class, and they are asked to collect information in regard to historical material found in their communities, instances of the neglect of this material, and the efforts made to preserve it. It has sometimes resulted that valuable information has been secured in this way, but even when, as most frequently, it has proved otherwise, the distribution of the blanks and the effort to fill them out has served a valuable purpose in awakening the students to a knowledge of the fact that historical material lies all about them, and that every effort should be made to preserve it.

We also try to give the class some appreciation of the place in historical study of a few of the great collections with which they do not naturally come in contact through their work, such as "Hansard's Debates," the "Rolls Series," the "Annual Register," and the "Moniteur," and we also attempt to give them some appreciation of the personality of a few of the great historians, as Gibbon and Bryce.

It must not be assumed that all instructors are able to reach all of these ends with all students,—the picture given is a composite one that represents the various plans tried by different persons to reach a common end, and the different phases of the subject presented collectively to the students of History I.

As the student and teacher of history frequently finds the negative results of research quite as valuable as the positive ones, so we have found it advisable to abandon some forms of study tried either by ourselves or by others. We have eliminated, for example,

assigned readings, including all readings suggested by inclusive pages. It seems to us that wide reading should be encouraged, and that the page limit, like the clock limit, tends to make students artificial and mechanical in their work.

We have also eliminated the outline of subject matter. A number of admirable text-books have been written, and these have made it unnecessary, if indeed the necessity ever existed, to put an outline of facts into the hands of the students. To prepare such an outline is excellent practice for the instructor, but in the hands of the student it becomes a form of peptonized, pre-digested mental food.

We have never tried the essay. It has seemed to us that the study of the final form to be given the results of historical study might better come as a result of work in English.

Within a comparatively recent period the teaching of history in our colleges and universities seems to have passed through three stages. During the first the essential demand was scholarship on the part of the instructor,—a period when the *ipse dixit* of the instructor counted for much because he had presumably absorbed all knowledge. In the second period the chief concern was the method of presenting this material to the students,—a period of elaborate outlines arranged with reference to giving the students a compact body of facts. The tendency was to make the students, instead of the instructor, absorbing sponges. In the third stage, we are primarily engaged in developing a method of independent work on the part of the student, of training him in the processes involved in the collection and interpretation of historical material, and thus furnishing him with the means of independent study. What are the methods to be employed in the next stage of development,—*Quien sabe?*

A Commencement Suggestion.

Dr. W. E. Griffis, in *The Nation* (N. Y.) for October 14, 1909, gives an interesting account of Dutch University life, in which he mentions student historical processions:

"Dutch student life in its manifestations has some aspects notably different from that in the United States. There seems to be little of athletic interest and comparatively few of those innumerable outside employments or distractions on which American students expend their energies. Other features, which characterize German universities, such as duelling, large investment in dogs and fantastic costumes, except at the *lustrum feests*, are virtually unknown; beer-drinking is not on so large a scale, certainly not so habitual. While there are numbers who seem to take the university course chiefly for social ornament or advancement, the average Dutch student is a serious person, who knows, that in a small country like his, for every professional prize there will be many competitors ahead of him, and it behooves him, therefore, to train well while he has opportunity. In thoroughness, Dutch scholarship falls in no degree below that of Germany. There is little dissipation, and in the smaller university towns, the *café chantant* scarcely exists. Each student corps issues an almanac or year-book, in which, besides local and statistical information, is a large addition, called *mengel werk*, or miscellany of student essays, observations, and jottings of things witty and probably wise. What concentrates the ambitions and enlists the enthusiasm of the undergraduate body more than anything else, is the costume-processions or *lustrum feests*, reproducing in brilliant colors famous events—the battle of St. Quentin, triumph of Germanicus over the Batavians, etc. These are usually celebrated once in five years in each place, so that every year sees one, and each university has an opportunity to equal or outshine its rivals and predecessor. That at Groningen this year was very fine. At Utrecht and Leyden, the élite of the kingdom, with royalty, are usually found as spectators, and, judging by the way the towns are decorated every year at the time of the commencement festivities, as well as from a knowledge of the local traditions, I gather that there has been, in recent times at least, little friction between town and gown. There being no dormitories, students are closely associated with family life."

Original Narratives of Early American History*

REVIEWED BY PROFESSOR CHARLES M. ANDREWS, JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

The printing or reprinting of original sources for history is a matter so familiar to the present-day teacher that a new experiment is apt to pass unnoticed unless special attention is drawn to its merits or demerits. When there were but few available texts each became a classic, but now that there are hundreds at the beck of every student the mind is apt to be dulled by the over-supply. Familiarity has tended to destroy that peculiar sense of mystery which always accompanies the approach of former years when some of us peered with feelings akin to awe into the almost unknown world of historical sources. Then when a "source" was printed it was received as a kind of messenger from the unknown. But now that the veil has been rent and the mystery revealed, the "source" has become a thing of everyday life, only needing adaptation to everyday needs. The older tendency to exaggerate the "source," whether printed or in manuscript, a tendency which at times threatened to attain alarming proportions, has been checked and a balance has now been fairly struck between that which is primary and that which is secondary in historical material.

Hitherto, to teacher, student, and general reader one class of original documents has remained in the main inaccessible. I refer to the complete narrative or chronicle which does not adapt itself readily to the short-section system of the customary "source book." The Bohn series long ago provided cheap and convenient translations of the English chronicles, but nothing similar in character was performed for the narrative material for our history until in 1906 Charles Scribner's Sons began to publish, under the general editorship of Dr. J. Franklin Jameson and with the imprimatur of the American Historical Association, the series known as "Original Narratives of Early American History." This series has made it possible for every teacher to have close at hand some of the rarest and most valuable texts with which the historian has to deal and which had formerly existed either in manuscript, in rare printed copies, or in expensive reprints that few teachers could obtain and no class ought to be allowed to use. By this means there is now brought to every reader the pleasure of enjoying a continuous narrative, full of contemporary and local color, teeming with quaint conceits of expression and understanding, and rich in its revelation of the limitations of man's knowledge and ideas. The delight in such narratives is denied to

those who have only the samples which are presented for consumption in the average source book of the historical drummer.

These narratives of early American history are in some cases literary masterpieces, in others the tales of unlearned men who wrote with little regard for literary form, and in still a third class the diaries or journals of conspicuous actors who had no thought of any eventual publication of that which they wrote. The documents are all in the highest degree authoritative, and in most cases thoroughly interesting, furnishing a background of reality and an atmosphere true to the age when they were written that can hardly be obtained from any other source. As an aid to the development of an historical imagination, one of the highest objects that the teacher of history has to attain, they are indispensable; as a factor in arousing the interest of students wearied with the routine of text-book recitation they are likely to be stimulating and alluring, for many of them have all the charm of a story of travel and adventure. To the teacher who views his task as something more than the crowding of facts into youthful heads, a form of educational savagery that is practiced by those to whom teaching is merely a business, this series will appeal as a pedagogical ally of permanent worth. To the school or library with inadequate financial resources it will appeal as a work valuable out of all proportion to its cost, containing the *rarest* of expensive collections, and bringing to the slender equipment of the isolated reading shelves the best that the most expensive libraries in the great cities can furnish.

As thus far published the series covers the period of discoveries and early settlements. Volumes are devoted to the Northmen, Columbus, and Cabot; to the voyages of Champlain; to the Spanish explorers in the southern United States; to the English and French discoverers; to narratives of early Virginia and New Netherland, and to Bradford's history of Plymouth and Winthrop's history of New England as embodied in his journal. Volumes to come will include narratives of early Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware; Maryland and Carolina; of the witchcraft persecution; of the Indian and French wars; of explorations in the Mississippi valley; of the insurrections of 1688, and such famous works as Johnson's "Wonder Working Providence," a history of New England contemporary with that of Winthrop. Every young person, and even persons of an older growth, retain naturally impressions obtained from graphic personal descriptions of voyages, people, and places; tales of action and prowess; accounts of political and religious accomplishment involving strategy, suffering, and adventure; and the thousand

and one details of experience that find lodgment in the diary, journal, or history of a contemporary. No one who has read Columbus' own account of his landfall, Champlain's account of his voyage up the St. Lawrence and his landing on the Isle aux Coudres, the anonymous description of New Amsterdam (Mannadens) in 1661, Bradford's story of the Pilgrims in Holland, or the actual proceedings of the Virginia Assembly of 1619 will soon forget the scene which each of these narratives presents. Few readers will ever feel the thrill which accompanies the discovery of a new document, such as Bancroft felt when Sainsbury at the State Paper Office showed him the manuscript of the proceedings of 1619, or as Vinogradoff experienced when he identified at the British Museum the notebook of Bracton. But all readers can now share in the joys which accrue from such discovery, and as they turn over the pages of these volumes can take pleasure in realizing that they have before them documents, clearly printed, well-edited, and handsomely bound, the discovery of which has in many cases cost time, money, and much labor on the part of those whose only reward was their success. The publication of these texts is part of that process which is bringing the world to the individual. Lantern slide, photograph, facsimile, and printed text, are placing before the eyes of the shut-in and the stay-at-home the seventy wonders of the earth, just as mechanical processes are bringing to the ears the sound of the voice and the music of the spheres.

Of the opportunity which this series of original narratives furnishes every teacher of American history, every reader interested in that same history, and every school board with the welfare of their school at heart should take advantage. If purchased volume by volume the cost is not great, while the profit is enduring. Such texts will never get out of date and have to be thrown aside to make way for better and more modern books. They are a part of the heritage of the race handed down from one generation to another worthy to be read as long as time remains and interest in history continues. For this reason they are not designed as a pedagogical contrivance only, to aid teacher and pupil to a wider, more human understanding of history; they have a special interest for the general reader, not only because they are tales of real life, but also because they are tales of life in an age when the spirits of men were roused to the accomplishment of great deeds in a new world itself still hidden in mystery. These deeds were the frontier experiences of old England and bear the same relation to the Elizabethans and the

*"Original Narratives of Early American History," prepared under the auspices of The American Historical Association, under the general editorship of J. Franklin Jameson, Ph.D. Published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. Price, \$3.00 a volume.

Stuarts that the adventures of Boone, Lewis and Clark, and Frémont bear to the settlers in our East and Middle West. The age of these narratives is the age of romance, an age of enthusiasm, courage, and excitement, of exploration and discovery, of wide worlds still to conquer and great wealth still to gain. Interest in such an age will not die

in the human race until children weary of fairy tales and grown people cease to follow with rapt attention the narrative accounts of modern plunges into the unknown, by Shackleton, Peary, or Sven Hedin. Now that our western frontier has disappeared, and the North Pole has been discovered, and romance and mystery are passing from the

prosaic, money-making world of to-day, men may well turn back to the origins of our history and review again in a fashion more thoroughgoing and complete than has ever before been possible, the age of heroism which ushered in the final establishment of the English-speaking race in the New World.

Training the History Teacher

The Interpretation of the Subject Matter

BY NORMAN MACLAREN TRENHOLME, PROFESSOR OF THE TEACHING OF HISTORY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

The Teacher and the Subject-Matter.

How many history teachers are there who really see the meaning and value of the subject-matter with which, day after day, they fill the minds of their pupils. The average teacher undoubtedly proceeds on the theory that the facts of history are of value in themselves and that the best pupil is the one who can repeat the most dates, names, and events in chronological or in topical sequence without serious errors or omissions. This is making of history a record of facts without regard to the thoughts, movements, and tendencies of which the facts are external indications or manifestations. It is of course entirely meet and right that the historical investigator should regard facts as an important end in themselves and should agree with Dr. Eduard Meyer's dictum that the principal task of history is "to go down into details, to follow development into individual circumstances; to busy itself with varieties," but it is unfortunate, to say the least, that such a conception of the value and aim of history as a subject of study in schools and colleges should prevail amongst the great mass of American teachers. It would seem that in the attempt to get away from old ideas in regard to the philosophy of history and from large generalizations on the history of civilization we have gone to the other extreme and have made history a mere factual record, with little real educational meaning or function. The sooner that history teachers recognize this and begin to see into and interpret their subject matter in a careful and rational manner the better for the profession and for the honor of the subject which they are attempting to teach. If teachers will recognize that the most important function of history as a subject of school and college study is to show how the present has developed from the past, that is to explain the present in the terms of the past, then the relation of the teacher to the subject-matter will be more vital as the value of facts will be assessed on the basis of what they stand for in connection with the great movements leading from the past to the present. Instead of the teacher taking the position that a fact should be learned for its own sake he will ask why the fact is

important in connection with a better knowledge and understanding of the present or in connection with some great movement or event leading up to the present. Thus in regard to the Magna Charta in English history the point will be clearly brought out that it was the first great expression of national interest in governmental affairs through the agency of a national baronial party, and that it therefore stands as the first great charter of English liberty. The fact or event in history is after all but an external indication of underlying thoughts, feelings, and ideas, and the teacher who does not realize this and seek constantly to interpret the facts and events does not understand history.

Methods of Interpretation.

There are various ways of interpreting the facts of history and no two teachers would probably agree on the same scheme. In general, however, it will be safe to say that interpretation may be along broad and comprehensive lines of general development of institutional life, or it may take the form of interpreting special events in connection with the life and thought of the period in which they take place. These general and special types of interpretation should, however, always be closely connected in the mental processes of the teacher, and the particular event should be brought into relation with the larger movements of history. Then, if we say that the function of English history as a subject of study is to show in general the evolution of the present political, social, and economic condition of the British people out of diverse elements in the past, then each particular fact of the history of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Empire should be brought into as close relation as possible with the general interpretative idea of the course of study. At the same time it is necessary to interpret these events in special connection with the times to which they belong.

The way to develop powers of interpretation is for the teacher to learn to regard history as a subject of study through which present conditions can be better understood and appreciated. When this viewpoint is acquired the teacher will learn to emphasize and discuss only such facts and

movements of the past as have a more or less direct bearing on the present and the relative value of facts will become clearer. It will be seen that all past politics is not necessary to properly understand historical development, and it will also become clear that present politics will not necessarily be future history. A realization of the vitally important factors in the gradual change from past to present will take the place of a confused knowledge of names, dates, and events all equally meaningless and yet regarded as equally important by teachers and pupils.

Historical development has never been aimless and objectless, but strongly the reverse, and it should be the endeavor of the history teacher to make clear the aims and objects of nations and leaders as well as the unconscious silent tendencies and changes of civilization in its various epochs. Looked at in this light, interpretation in history is in large part the process of clearly setting forth the problems of past ages and the methods and manner by which a solution of them was attempted and the success or failure of such attempts. It is not too much to say, as a recent writer has done, that "every situation in history may be viewed as an attempt to solve one or several problems with the data which that particular group of people had at hand. Moreover, many of these problems are common to both past and present. The problem of government is of this perennial type. Each generation has tried to find a better solution than that of its predecessor, and in turn has left its work as a heritage to the generation which followed. In fact, all the great problems of society are continuous, and by following them from their early beginnings we can see how their solutions have been evolved, and how the problems themselves have been modified by changing conditions. By tracing these problems from their fundamental form, while keeping constantly in view the present form of the solution, there is little danger of restricting the function of history to the realization of the past and thereby destroying much good that could be gained from it."

* *Charters, Methods of Teaching*, (Row, Peterson & Co., Chicago), 660-1.

Value of Interpretation in Teaching.

The criticism that is perhaps most frequently heard in connection with history as a subject of study is that it is arbitrary and meaningless, even if it is interesting and romantic. But if the events, movements, and institutions of the past are looked on as having a meaning and significance in connection with both past and present, as expressions of thoughts and tendencies, or as solutions of problems of the time, then history will have a unity and continuity, a vitality and a dynamic meaning that will be bound to interest the

average boy and girl. If, furthermore, the teacher and pupils will cultivate the habit of looking on each situation in history as containing one or more problems of development which need to be clearly seen and interpreted, then the subject will have an interest which it could not possibly possess if regarded merely as a collection of loosely related facts. Nor will a realization of the value of an interpretative attitude towards the subject matter and the acquisition of the power to properly organize and interpret in one's teaching at all detract from the value and satisfaction to be derived

from memory and imagination. These qualities will only be reinforced by reason and judgment, and history will appear, as the gradual solving of a series of closely-related problems of political, social, and economic development. If scholarly and exact standards are maintained and generalizations based on insufficient data are avoided by the teacher only good can result from the introduction of more meaning and significance into the great record of what man as a social being has thought and done in the past.

The Year 1909 in History

BY JOHN HAYNES, PH.D., DORCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

Article II. The Balkans, Persia and China

When the year 1909 opened, the troubles in the Balkan region which had developed in October, 1908 were still unsettled. In that month, within the space of three days, Ferdinand, Prince of Bulgaria, had proclaimed the complete independence of his country, Austria had announced that Bosnia and Herzegovina would henceforth be regarded as an integral part of the dual monarchy and the Cretans had declared their island a part of Greece. All of these actions were contrary to the Treaty of Berlin and repudiated the nominal sovereignty of Turkey. The foreign offices of Great Britain, France, Germany and Russia at once busied themselves with the question.

The immediate causes of the step taken by Prince Ferdinand were trouble over the part of the Oriental Railway, the property of Turkey, which lies in Bulgaria, and the failure of the Ottoman government to invite the Bulgarian representative at Constantinople to a state dinner because his country was a tributary state. Finally Russia came to the aid of Bulgaria with the offer to allow Turkey a sum equal to \$24,000,000 of our money for the loss of her nominal rights in Bulgaria. The payment was to be made by crediting Turkey with the annual payments due from her to Russia under the Treaty of Berlin (none of which had been paid) until the agreed sum should be reached. To this Turkey assented. At the same time Bulgaria promised a payment to Russia equal to \$16,400,000.

Diplomacy also settled the issue between Austria and Turkey. The former country paid to the latter \$10,800,000 for the surrender of her claim on Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Novibazar, which lies between Serbia and Montenegro, was returned to Turkey. Though nominally Turkish, these provinces had been administered with great benefit to them by Austria since 1878.

The most serious trouble came from Serbia, whose people considered their

future threatened by the action of Austria. The excitement in Serbia and Austria was intense. Both parties mobilized their armies and for months war between Serbia and her neighbor was a possibility. But, of course, unless she could get the support of one of the Powers, Serbia must yield. Germany vigorously supported Austria, and the recent troubles of Russia made her too weak to venture upon war in Serbia's behalf. A general European war was avoided, and the policy of Baron von Aehrenthal, the Austrian foreign minister, triumphed. His enthusiastic admirers have hailed him as a new Bismarck.

The Cretan question has at times been acute, and war between Turkey and Greece has threatened, but the latter country has observed a scrupulously correct attitude, and the protecting Powers, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Russia, have forced the Cretans to remain as before under the nominal sovereignty of Turkey.

The struggle for constitutional government in Persia like the struggle for the same object in Turkey, resulted in the same year in the loss of the throne by the reigning monarch. As early as 1905 the Mollahs or priests, who were leaders in the constitutional movement, together with many merchants, left Teheran as a protest against the incompetence of the government. The Shah, Mirzafer-ed-Din, promised representative government, and after a second exodus of the Mollahs, authorized a National Assembly, which met in 1906. In 1907, a constitution was formed, which defines the duties of the parliament and ministers and contains the guarantees usual in free governments. This instrument was signed by Mohamed Ali Mirza, who had meanwhile succeeded to the throne. But he was not loyal to the new régime, and, after being worsted in several contests with the Assembly, he took measures in 1908 to bring parliamentary government to an end. Cossacks surrounded the parliament buildings, and leaders of the

Liberals were massacred whenever found. But the Constitutionalists also had an army, which carried on a vigorous resistance. In the summer of 1909 this army entered the capital and the Shah took refuge with the Russian Legation. This action was treated as abdication, and the Crown Prince, Ahmed Mirza, was proclaimed Shah by the National Assembly. As he was only twelve years old, his uncle, Azud-es-Sultan, was made regent. Great Britain and Russia are coöperating in Persian affairs and will give joint assistance in financial matters. The greatest influence making for constitutional government in Persia is the liberal movement in Russia. Thousands of Persians go to Southern Russia to find employment, and there absorb ideas which they send or carry home.

In recent years no country has seen more rapid changes than China. There, as also in Turkey, Persia, India and Egypt, the desire for self-government has been making itself felt. There are about two hundred native newspapers, which enjoy great freedom of discussion, and express a strong and growing spirit of nationality. In 1908 a remarkable imperial decree was issued, providing for the gradual introduction of popular government, to end in 1917 with the establishment of a National Constitution and Parliament. In 1909 the foundations of this scheme were laid by the inauguration of provincial assemblies and local governments. The assemblies have at present deliberative functions only. The resolutions already adopted by them are intensely patriotic, but iconoclastic, and show scant respect for the central government. For example, foreign loans for railway building are roundly condemned. A correspondent of the "London Times" foresees a tremendous conflict between the leaders of the popular movement and the ruling classes. To him the establishment of the provincial assemblies is "like the first low sighs and whisperings of an approaching storm."

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Problems of the Freshman Course

The establishment of a satisfactory course in history for the freshman year is no easy task, for, not only have we to adopt peculiar methods to deal with the green freshman, but we must also decide what is the aim of an introductory history course, and by what method this aim can best be attained; and, finally, we must settle the content of the course—the field of history which shall be studied. It is not possible in a few paragraphs to discuss the several questions which thus arise, but some comments may be made upon the ideal history course as related to the body of freshmen, individually and collectively.

And first there is the mere element of the size of the freshman class. As the largest class in the college community, the freshmen, from the weight of numbers, make certain demands upon the teaching force, upon the libraries, and upon the subject matter presented to them. One instructor or professor cannot reach all of the freshmen, the library can afford to furnish duplicate copies of only the less costly books, and the topics selected must be such that they can be treated objectively and in a similar fashion by all the members of a large corps of instructors handling the freshman work. Judged by these limitations, the freshman course should be one which can be easily outlined and analyzed, and which can be conducted with a relatively small number of reference books so low in price that copies can be abundantly multiplied upon the library shelves. The growing custom, now becoming almost universal, of making medieval history or general European history the subject matter of the freshman or introductory history course shows that that period meets the limitations set by the size of the freshman class.

But the character of the individual freshman is a greater determining factor than the mere size of the class. He is immature, and yet upon the verge of maturity; he has been under parental and scholastic leading-strings, and is now given a wider liberty; he has been recently translated from the regnant position of last-year man in the preparatory school to a subordinate position below the sophomores. The freshman course in any subject, therefore, must aim to shape the freshman's habits before his character finally sets in its self-made mould; it must direct him intelligently in his new-found liberty. It should contain in its method a regard for precision and details without descending to grammar school methods, while at the same time it holds out opportunity for the exercise of personal judgment and individual choice. In other words, it should begin the creation of that greatest characteristic of the man of culture—the rational exercise of the critical faculty. Four years is all too short a time for this process of converting the recent matriculate into a man of discern-

ment, and often the man is graduated without ever gaining the real essence of the college course. Surely the freshman year is not too early to begin this work, and it is as much the duty of the history department, as it is the duty of the English or the Latin department, to face this problem and to give its introductory course in such form and with such content that it will act toward the general aim of the college.

Again, it must be remembered that there are certain methods of study and ways of arriving at historical or other material in which the freshman has had no training in his preparatory school course. He has rarely had access to a large library, and still more rarely has he been trained in the intelligent use of the library. It may well be a part of the freshman work to introduce the newcomer to the library facilities of the college, and to set him tasks in connection with bibliographies and reference work such as is outlined by Professor Salmon in her account of the introductory course at Vassar College.

The quality and scope of the freshman's preparation should also help us determine what is the best work to give him in college. In the greater number of cases he has had ancient history in his preparatory course; in some cases he has substituted for ancient history or taken in addition to it the subjects of American and English history; rarely has he had any study of European history. These facts in themselves are almost sufficient to give an unanimous verdict in favor of European history in the freshman year. Pedagogically it is not wise to repeat any subject in a general way which the student has taken recently, and owing to the character of the freshman class the subject given must be a general one, involving no severe burden upon libraries or teaching force. European history is of all subjects the one least likely to duplicate what has been recently completed.

Judged by the needs growing out of the size of the freshman class, out of the character of freshmen, and out of their previous preparation the course in general or medieval European history seems the best possible course for the first year. But what should be the aim of the introductory course, and by what methods shall the ends be gained? In other words, how should a freshman course in European history be conducted? Here there is a wide divergence of the theory and practice of different institutions. A comparison of such methods and ideals will not be out of place. It is hoped that the series of articles now appearing in the MAGAZINE describing the introductory courses in several institutions will prove of interest and value to all who are brought into contact with freshmen.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, Editor.

The Spring Meetings

ANNOUNCEMENTS

of Meetings of History Teachers' Associations.

Officers of associations are requested to send notices of meetings to W. H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass., as long before the date of meeting as possible.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—December 27, 1910, at Indianapolis, Ind.

INDIANA.—History Section of the State Teachers' Association, April 29-30, 1910, at Indianapolis.

MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.—History Teachers' Association, March 11-12, 1910, at City College, New York City.

MISSOURI HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—May 14, at Kirksville.

NEBRASKA HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—First week in April, at Lincoln.

NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—April 15-16, at Portsmouth, N. H.

NORTH CENTRAL HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—April 1-2, at Chicago.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION.

The North Central History Teachers' Association will hold its annual meeting at Chicago on Friday and Saturday, April 1st and 2d. On Friday evening, April 1st, Professor Paul S. Reinsch, of the University of Wisconsin, will give an address; on Saturday morning, April 2d, there will be a paper by Professor George C. Sellery, of the University of Wisconsin, upon "The Use of the Textbook"; Miss Lillian Thompson, of the Englewood High School of Chicago, will give a paper upon "The Use of Pictures in History Work"; Professor Henry E. Bourne, of Western Reserve University, will talk upon "The Use and Abuse of the Text-book"; and Mr. Oscar H. Williams, of the High School, Bloomington, Ind., will discuss "Supplementary Reading in History Work." It is expected that other papers will be given at the sessions on Saturday. There will be a report from the Annual Bibliography Committee, and the election of officers for the ensuing year.

THE NEXT MEETING OF THE NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The council of the New England History Teachers' Association at a recent meeting voted to consider at its forthcoming meeting in Portsmouth, N. H., on April 15th and 16th, the double subject of text-books in history, and historical material, other than that in print. It was voted also to call for a report from the Committee on College Entrance Requirements at the fall meeting of the association, October 15th, in

Boston. Dr. Arthur L. Andrews, of Simmons College, was appointed chairman of the Committee on Historical Material, and Professor Herbert D. Foster, of Dartmouth College, chairman of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements.

Several years ago, the association issued a report on text-books in American History; this report at the time met with great favor, and it is now planned to complete the series by a report on text-books in the three other fields. The Committee on Historical Material will attempt something along the line of aids to visualization, similar to that given at Teachers' College last December.

It was also proposed to arrange for a permanent location, in Boston, of such a collection, and at the same time to make it available through loans to proper parties in additional parts of New England, in connection with teachers' conventions.

In addition to the more serious work of the meeting, it is proposed to have a public address by some prominent man on Friday evening, April 15th, and provision will also be made for social features on Friday and Saturday. As this will be the first meeting of the association in New Hampshire, special effort will be made to reach teachers in that section of New England.

The following are the members of the committees of the New England History Teachers' Association:

Committee on Text-books:

Prof. S. B. Fay, of Dartmouth, Mass.
Margaret McGill, of Newton High School.

Miss Harriet E. Tuell, of Somerville High School.

Mr. S. P. R. Chadwick, of Phillips Exeter Academy.

Mr. William B. Jackson, of Portland High School.

Committee on Historical Material:

Dr. Arthur L. Andrews, of Simmons College.

Miss E. C. Davison, of Bradford Academy.

Prof. J. O. Sumner, of Institute of Technology.

Mr. W. H. Cushing, of South Framingham.

Committee on College Entrance Requirements:

Prof. H. D. Foster, of Dartmouth.

Prof. C. H. Haskins, of Harvard.

Prof. S. M. Kingsbury, of Simmons College.

Mr. P. T. Campbell, of Boys' Latin School, Boston.

Mr. Williard Reed, of Browne and Nichols School, Cambridge.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland will hold its annual meetings at the College of the City of New York, One-hundred-and-thirty-ninth St. and Convent Ave., on Friday, March 11, and Saturday, the 12th. The following program has been arranged by the committee, of which Dr. L. R. Schuyler is chairman:

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, 3.30 P.M.—College of the City of New York, Convent Avenue and 139th Street.

Address of Welcome, John Huston Finley, LL.D., President of the College of the City of New York.

Address by President Herman V. Ames, Dean of the Graduate School, University of Pennsylvania.

Paper: "On a Certain Indefiniteness in History," Miss Lucy M. Salmon, of Vassar College.

Topic for the Afternoon: "How to Use a Syllabus."

In the Elementary School—Paper: Miss Louise J. Hedge, Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, N. Y.

In the Secondary School—Paper: Miss Anna Boynton Thompson, Thayer Academy, South Braintree, Mass.

Speaker: Daniel C. Knowlton, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J.

In the College—Paper: Herbert Darling Foster, Dartmouth College.

Speaker: Professor Dawson, The Normal College, New York City.

General Discussion.

FRIDAY EVENING—Exhibition of old editions of school and college text-books. At the residence of Mr. Geo. A. Plimpton. Open to members of the Association only.

SATURDAY MORNING, 10 A.M.—College of the City of New York.

Address by Mr. Edward Mandel, Principal of Public School No. 188, New York, on "The Teaching of American History in the Grades, with Particular Reference to the Period Before 1776."

General topic for the morning—"The Use of Maps, Pictures and Models in the Teaching of History."

In the Elementary School—Paper: Miss Josephine E. Blydenburgh, Public School No. 102, Brooklyn, N. Y.

In the Secondary School—Paper: Miss Louise H. Haeseler, High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.

Speaker: Miss M. Frances Freeland, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

In the College—To be announced later. Business meeting at one o'clock.

For further "Reports from the Historical Field," see pp. 161-163 of this issue.

English History in the Secondary School

C. B. NEWTON, Editor.

VI. REVOLUTION AND RESTORATION.

I wonder how many permutations and combinations of ways of leading up to the Revolution of 1642 there are. I suppose that many of us have our pet ways of solving the far-from-easy problem of conveying to the untutored mind some idea of the remote and accumulating causes of that great conflict. I, for one, can boast no great measure of success in my own efforts at solving it. All that I can claim for it is some degree of improvement on the text-book, which I found making no entrance at all at the well-guarded portals of my pupils' understanding.

Without going too much into the details, I may roughly outline my method of attack, glad if someone can suggest a better. Of course, the beginnings of the breach between king and people go back to the reign of James I, already touched on in my last article. In Charles I's reign, I call the period from 1625 to 1640 the time of the gathering of the storm; the period from 1640 to 1642 the time of the immediate causes. I try to emphasize the sequence of events during the former period by subdividing it into (a) the four years of conflict between Charles I and Parliament, from 1625 to 1629; and (b) the eleven years of rule without Parliament which followed. These are the natural time divisions, and they seem simple enough—to you and me. The Petition of Right is usually learned with avidity by those of the class who learn anything, for its details are concrete and may be had by rote; not so their significance or the significance of Charles' failure to keep faith, on which Macaulay lays so much stress. This is the point on which all one's guns of clearness and emphasis must be trained. The eleven years present a similar difficulty and a similar need. The persecutions of Laud, the methods of Strafford, the illegality of "ship money" taxes, the other devices for raising money, and finally the "Bishops' wars"—all these must not only be clearly set forth, but their relation to the trend of national feeling must be reiterated ceaselessly. In one's efforts to teach what these things *were* there is danger of losing sight, or of letting the class lose sight, of what they *meant*.

The same thing is true of the series of actions which resulted in the actual outbreak of war in the summer of 1642. You have patiently taught about the impeachment of Strafford and the fall of Laud; you have enumerated the hostile and self-defensive measures of that determined band of Englishmen imbued with a sense of rights too long abused; you have described that crowning violation of privilege when royalty stood at the threshold of the House backed by a regiment; do not fail to show *why* these things led inevitably to war, why

they engendered an irrepressible conflict. The same necessity confronts us in the tortuous sequence of events which culminated in the High Court of Justice and in the final tragedy of 1649. I do not think any attempt should be made to go into the confusing details of that long series of negotiations. But the central facts of the royal unreliability and the stern temper of the army must be brought out at all hazards.

The Commonwealth.

A threefold division of the eleven years from 1649 to 1660 helps keep Oliver Cromwell in his proper place as actual ruler of England for five years only. Otherwise the class insists on putting him at the helm from the moment when Charles was beheaded. It is, (a) The Rule of the Rump; (b) The Protectorate; (c) The Period of Confusion. Of the three periods of the Commonwealth the Protectorate is the most important and deserves most elucidation. But most of all I would dwell on the paradox of its success and failure—the ultimate success which meant the coming, in the course of another quarter of a century, of constitutional government; the failure which meant at first the return of the Stuarts, the apparent undoing of all that had been done. Paradoxes are dangerous things to handle, and are usually to be avoided, but I have known this one to stick in the pupil's mind after it had been pretty well driven in.

If there is time, Cromwell undoubtedly deserves special attention. The place to make a study of his career as a whole, is at its close, I think. Here the class may look backward and see its long preliminary training in Parliament, its late and therefore the more wonderful military development, and its climax in those troublous years when England was such an agitated sea of sects and passions that only his iron hand could control it.

The Restoration.

How strangely and surely the reaction of the Restoration, with all its evils, worked toward the constitutional development of William III's reign! How all things—the very vices of Charles II and his courtiers, the very ambitions of Louis XIV, the national division over the succession—worked together to bring about what now-a-days we build none too well in constitutional conventions! The beginnings of the Cabinet as such, the beginnings of parties such as were not merely political religious sects, and finally the Bill of Rights were born of the lessons of the Great Revolution—triumphant over the ill-advised efforts of Charles and James to restore the spirit of the old régime.

Whether it is to be attributed to the theory of the divine right or to the natural

bias resultant from royal ancestry—and probably both had a share in the result—whatever it is to be attributed to, it was certainly the cardinal failing of the four successive Stuarts that they regarded themselves as aloof from and above the law. This was the rock on which they split. This, according to the nature of each, was the excuse or the reason for his lack of faith as a king. To say this at the beginning of the Stuart dynasty may do no harm as the adornment of a note-book, but it can be of little use so far as entering the comprehension of the pupil goes. Step by step it must be brought out in act after act until it becomes familiar and deducible from its frequent recurrence. By the time we get to James II's Declaration of Indulgence it is pretty evident to the average pupil that the thing had gone too far, that the patience of the English was about exhausted. No wonder the trial of the seven Bishops wrought island-wide excitement; no wonder the mines of Cornwall reëchoed with

"And shall Trelawney suffer?

And shall Trelawney die?

There's twenty thousand Cornish men

Will know the reason why!"

No wonder there was a Glorious Revolution—glorious in its results and in the unanimity which made it "bloodless."

Constitutional Government at Last.

So we come logically and surely to the period when constitutional government may fairly be said to have begun in England. But we are very far from having accomplished anything in the way of producing either comprehension of this fact, or any realization of what it meant, when we announce it for the note-book or arrive at the announcement in our text-book. The average boy or girl has about as much notion of what "constitutional government," as applied to the England of William's and Mary's reign, is, as he or she has of the nebular hypothesis or the atomic theory. Not long ago I asked, in an examination, about "the beginning of constitutional government in England," after having, as I thought, duly impressed my class with the correct answer. An unduly and discouragingly large proportion of the class either did not profess to know, or made bold to hazard that it began with the *Instrument of Government*! Something had been said in the class room about the Instrument as the first attempt at a *written constitution* in England. This had caught, and the obvious inference had been seized on, with the name of our own Constitution of course ever in the mind of an American youth.

The first necessity, in the light of such experience, is to clear the ground, persistently and painstakingly, of the idea that "constitutional" has necessarily anything

to do with a written constitution. This involves not only the positive statement that it does not, but also the explanation of the terms "British constitution," a constitution which is *not* a constitution, such as the American youth is familiar with. "When is a constitution not a constitution? When it is the British constitution," is a conundrum and answer which sometimes catches even the laggards of the class, and makes them "sit up and take notice."

In the second place, having driven home some idea of what the British use of the term is (see Lowell's "Government of England," for a lucid statement), one must build up upon this foundation what the change actually was which has caused the government of England to be called a constitutional government since 1689. Here is a chance for much intricacy and resultant confusion. What are the simplest terms of the thing? Well, I should say that the very simplest are that up to this point the king, though his power had its ups and downs, was the stronger of those two main parts of the government, king and parliament; from this point on parliament was the stronger of the two and the king's power recedes until it reaches the almost absolute zero of its present figure-headship. This is the crux and core of the thing, is it not? I hesitate to present a statement which some will regard as a use-term truism, and others will doubtless im-

prove on at once. But I find few textbooks getting down to so plain a statement, and if anyone is incited to a better statement by the crudities in this one, so much the better.

Having gone so far, a warning is due—the caution that great as was the progress indicated by the interchange of king and parliament, in what may be called the leading rôle, this did *not* mean popular government, democracy in any large sense. That was still far off, in the "process of the suns."

General Notes and References.

The selections for this period in Beard's "Introduction" are exceedingly interesting. The graphic descriptions of the crisis in the parliament of 1629 (pp. 347-354); of the dissolution of parliament by Cromwell (pp. 384-386); and of the protest of the Bishops (pp. 413-416), are all well suited to quotation in class. They supply the needful human touches which are in danger of being obscured in this time of constitutional development. Similarly the details incidental to the execution of Strafford, pp. 467-472 of Cheyney's "Readings," and the letters and extracts on the time between 1642 and 1649 (pp. 473-494) throw much natural light on those troubled days.

Macaulay, one-sided as he may be, is rich in material for this whole century. His essays on John Hampden, Milton, and Bunyan are particularly interesting and useful,

while the History we are all too familiar with to comment on. It is not a bad thing to get a boy interested in Macaulay as a beginning. There is much quickening stuff between the covers of his famous History, not to be had in the scientific accuracies of some *majora opera*.

Of course Pepy's "Diary" is a rich mine of gossip through which we can get nearer to the men and women of the Restoration than anywhere else. One really should steep oneself—bury oneself, to carry out the figure of the time—every year. There are some excellent brief extracts from the "Diary" pp. 524-528 of the "Readings," which give a good idea of the old gossip at his best, if one cannot get time for a fuller taste of him.

A not very well-known novel by Conan Doyle, "Micah Clarke," gives a vivid picture of Monmouth's Rebellion. It is the only historical novel that I know of which deals with this time.

As to the Civil War—it seems to me hopeless to attempt to go into much detail. If one gets immersed in Gardiner, or in Morley's "Cromwell" one becomes entirely too full for the restricted time of the classroom. It is really safer, I think, to err on the side of meagreness in favor of clearness, unless one has far more class time than the average English history course allows; not only more time, but more capacity per pupil!

Ancient History in the Secondary School

WILLIAM FAIRLEY, Ph.D., Editor.

In the article preceding this the suggestion was made that the course in Roman History begin with a general survey of the great field in order that the young student might see before he plunged into the mass of detail what the ground was over which he was to pass, and have a general idea throughout his work of the unity of the whole story.

By this time he is familiar with the legendary period. He is learning the course of events in two great fields of activity: that of conquest and that of progress toward democracy. He sees the little Roman village gradually asserting its sway over all Italy, and then gathering into the embrace of its dominion practically the whole Mediterranean basin. Parallel with this goes the struggle between the two orders for political and social equality. By 264 B. C. he is told that such equality has been won. But real equality does not last. And by the time of the Gracchi the gap between the wealthy few and the wretched many has become so wide that the old republic falls apart—or is ready so to fall—because of this gap.

The Time Sense.

One of the great difficulties in the teaching of history is to secure what may be

called chronological perspective. We hurry over these momentous centuries of the great republic in a few weeks. And it is hard for the young pupil to have any adequate sense of the real lapse of time. It is well for the teacher to make an effort to secure this by comparing these great epochs with more familiar ones of later history. His boys and girls will win a greater respect for Rome when they are reminded, for instance, that the great republic lasted as such (509-48 B. C.) for a period slightly longer than that from the discovery of America by Columbus to the present time. The schoolboy of the present looks upon the veterans of our Grand Army as ancient men. When we speak of "the war" he asks if we mean the Spanish War. That war is not yet fifty years behind us. The conquest of Italy consumed a period about five times fifty years in length. The boy thinks of 1776 as very far back. Show him that the time since our first great Fourth of July (134 years) just about equals the 131 years during which Rome was establishing her Mediterranean supremacy (264-133 B. C.).

The Failure of the Republic.

The contrast should by this time have become clear between Greek and Roman republicanism. The former was petty.

There never was Greek unity. The tiny republics fell by immediate pressure from without—Macedonian and Roman. The Roman republic was great and mighty; in a sense, highly unified. It fell asunder from internal causes. Many of our standard texts make altogether too much of the mere procession of gigantic conquests without; and within the State, of the winning of equality with the patricians by the plebeians. The social failure of the huge fabric needs emphasizing.

Here again the time sense needs to be cultivated. Books have been written about Roman life. But it is extremely difficult to gather from them any real recognition of the vast changes in manners, habits and conditions which must have taken place in these long centuries of growth which stretch between the age of the little shepherd village on the Tiber and that when Rome sank back glutted with conquest, the mistress of the world.

Changed Social Conditions.

There is no need to say that conditions and habits of life changed much more slowly two thousand years ago than they have been recently changing with us. The nineteenth century with its marvellous mechanical and scientific advances has altered our ways of living since the time of

Washington more than they could have changed between Romulus and Caesar. Yet from the close of the Second Punic War down to the time of the Gracchi the fabric of Roman society underwent a great transformation. Just as our social conditions of to-day differ from the simpler times of our earlier republic with their plain fare and homespun garments, so the rough Cincinnatus, who could not be bribed by the foes of his country as long as he could raise turnips enough from his little four-acre patch to keep him from want contrasts with the triumphant splendor of a Sulla.

The earlier Romans had been plain farmers and humble traders; their army, the citizens arrayed; their generals, men like our own Marion and Putnam. But the great century of final conquest radically changed this. It brought in vast floods of wealth with all the temptations and dangers of sudden enrichment. And, as always, it was the few abler men who profited most by the influx of wealth. The benefit was not shared by the common people.

The hollowness of the plebeian victory in the fight for political equality needs to be dwelt upon. No sooner was that victory won than the plebeian leaders began the formation of a new aristocracy far more dangerous than that of family—the aristocracy of wealth. Pride and power of purse is worse than pride of birth. Signor Ferrero draws a dismal parallel between the degeneracy of imperial Rome and our own present American conditions of reckless prodigality. The drawing of such morals may be disquieting. Scientific historians often say that history is not "philosophy teaching by example" at all, because historic conditions can never re-

produce themselves. Yet the fact burns itself into the consciousness of the careful student of the times of the later Roman republic that a state in which rapacious wealth is the condition of a minority, and bitter, sordid poverty that of the vast majority can never last. Labor cannot be degraded and starved without becoming an ulcer in the body politic. Such it became in Rome, or rather in Italy.

One of the greatest factors in the degradation of Roman labor was the monstrous slave system. Our pupils ought to get an idea of its foulness. It was slavery of white persons. By the hundreds of thousands captives of conquest became the property of Rome's great men. Many slaves were made such by kidnapping in the provinces; others were reduced to bondage through failure to pay the terrible provincial taxes. One Roman could complain that misfortune had left him but 4,116 slaves; another had 8,000; still another 20,000. On the vast estates of the great landed proprietors such slaves did all the work. There was no employment for free labor. In the cities, and notably in Rome, the hordes of slaves monopolized the useful arts and trades for the benefit of their owners. Slave physicians, writers, teachers, killed off the possibility of a healthy middle class. "Ye Gods!" cries a visitor to a Roman mill, "what a deformed population! what livid skins, marked with the strokes of the whip! All have been branded, a chain on the ankle, the hair shaven on one side, and are without clothes. Nothing can be conceived more hideous than these specters, whose eyelids are inflamed by the smoke and the strain."

The student of English history knows well the effects wrought in England by the substitution of pasturage for tillage. All

that and worse was seen in Italy; and the little peasant proprietor perished from the field. The Roman noble was forbidden by law to engage in commerce or manufacture; his one resource was slave farming, and this for the most part took the form of cattle raising, with the ruinous effects just alluded to. The next great class of the wealthy, the equites, got their gains from exploiting and promoting. Vast syndicates they formed, who took, not without unworthy profit, the great government contracts; they leased the right to collect the provincial taxes whose levying lost no weight in their reckoning; they monopolized the various lines of commerce. Of what avail to the stunned people were free bread and games flung to them by the contemptuous fortunate ones, the price wrung cruelly from plundered provinces?

The Foundation of Popular Government.

With such a substructure of society free institutions could not endure. A body politic, in the opinion of those not socialists, may well have its honest and honorable rich; it may have its delinquent, dependent and defective classes; but as its very bone and sinew it must have its great mass of contented, well-housed and well-fed workers. These Rome did not have, and the republic went to shipwreck for lack of them.

For the picture of social conditions such as these the teacher who wishes material will find it in abundance in such a work, for instance, as Volume II of Duruy's great History of Rome. The ordinary texts cannot find space for it. But the teacher needs the background of such knowledge to enable him to understand and to explain the great sweep of change which threw republican Rome into ruin, and made monarchy a stern necessity for the common good.

European History in the Secondary School

D. C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., Editor.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION: ITS CHARACTER AND CAUSES.

Coherence in History Teaching.

One of the most difficult things for the teacher of history to attain is the ability to handle a phase of history in such a way as to leave in the mind of the student a clear impression of its real significance and its relation to the great whole of which it is but a part. It is only by laying emphasis upon certain tendencies or characteristics, or upon some particular aspect of the subject, rather than upon the facts themselves that anything like coherence can be secured, the attainment of which is so vital to the understanding of the subject in its entirety. There are two ways by which this result may be secured. The first is to enunciate the principles and then call for the facts which seem to establish them; the second reverses the process, takes the facts as they present themselves and makes them

the basis for such deductions as may be desired. In the first case a premium is placed upon information; in the latter, upon the power to make accurate generalizations. Apparently it is not enough for the teacher in dogmatic fashion to lay down a few fundamental notions applicable to a given situation, and, as is so often done, to trust the rest to the class. The text-books are filled with such generalizations, many of which might well be omitted so far as the student is concerned. In many cases they are entirely misunderstood, or convey little if any meaning. Worse than this, they may even prove misleading. This is not so much the fault of the maker of the book as of the student. Some text-book writers, in consideration of these facts, have confined their generalizations to those portions of the book which are not intended for study. The teacher cannot well afford to neglect these sections, as they not only supply food for thought, but themes for the recitation.

The handling of these generalizations is essentially the province of the instructor; but if the acquisition of information is made the primary consideration, not only will the student fail to experience that joy of discovery which accompanies the deductive process, but will be in grave danger of overlooking altogether those cohesive elements which make the dry facts pulsate with life and movement.

The Character of the Revolution.

To secure anything like a coherent treatment of the period of the French Revolution, this movement must be presented from a definite point of view. Such a point of view is suggested by the question, "What was the real work of the Revolution?" This, or a similar query, should be constantly in the mind of the instructor; and it should be his constant endeavor to answer it to his own satisfaction as well as to that of the class. What conception shall

our students carry away with them of this movement which bears the name of French, but which, in reality, knew few bounds of country or nationality; which not only impregnated the old world with its ideas, but reached out to and embraced the new? How many of our students will have any conception which they can frame in words, when the last word has been spoken by teacher and class? It is easy to see at a glance that this is a fundamental consideration, but one which is at the same time most difficult of attainment.

The teacher can set himself no higher ideal than to give the student an intelligent grasp and appreciation of what the Revolution meant to Europe and America. The clearer the phrasing of this idea in mind of the instructor, the easier it will be to marshal the facts and to present them in such a way as to secure its lodgement in the minds of his students. West suggests three great characteristics of the movement which may serve this purpose: (1) the destructive tendencies of the Revolution; (2) its constructive side; (3) the importance of the social changes as contrasted with the political.

Presentation of the Causes.

In addition to this fundamental objective for the period as a whole, there should be a definite goal toward which the work of each recitation can be directed. This may be illustrated in dealing with the conditions or causes which brought about the Revolution. These offer an interesting but withal a difficult subject for class-room treatment. Dr. Jaeger makes the following suggestions for the general treatment of the period: "It will be advisable not to go too deeply into the causes of the Revolution, which are extremely complicated, but to relate its progress with all the completeness possible until the events of Thermidor."^{*} His first suggestion as to the causes of the Revolution will undoubtedly commend itself to every teacher who has made any extended study of pre-Revolutionary conditions. Professor Mathews says of the Revolution: "It was no more the outgrowth of sudden passion than it was of mere misery. It was the product of a century's discontent, rationalized and made constructive by philosophy."[†] Farther on he says: "It was no sudden outbreak of passion, still less 'an explosion of gunpowder.' It was rather the culmination of a long social process in which the spirit of France had outgrown its irrational, impotent government and the abominations of a dead feudalism; and under the influence of the philosophy of the age had struggled, not quite impotently, toward political and social reforms."[‡] Such statements as these will supply the teacher with the proper point of view from which to consider the various factors which precipitated the conflict. As each of these

comes up for consideration, he can impress upon the class the truth of these conclusions, not following blindly the phraseology of any particular author, but rather calling attention in his own way to those points which seem to bind these causes together.

The class should be encouraged to read a book like Dickens' "Tale of Two Cities." The impressions created by such a book will have to be considerably modified. His portrayal of French conditions can be compared to Harriet Beecher Stowe's picture of the Southern slaveholder before the war. All masters were not like Simon Legree or all slaves like Uncle Tom. In the case of Dickens the student may become interested enough in the truth of the narrative to check his account by the descriptions to be found in the work of the English traveller, Arthur Young, to whom Dickens was probably in no slight degree indebted. The danger is ever present of treating the outbreak of the Revolution as "an explosion of gunpowder" occasioned by wretchedness and appalling misery. That there was no such widespread misery as Dickens' descriptions seem to indicate has been demonstrated over and over again. Furthermore, it should be noted that, in comparison with the other continental countries, France led many of her neighbors both socially and economically, but, says Lowell, "while France was great, prosperous, and growing, and a model to her neighbors, she was deeply discontented."[§]

Professor Mathews selects as the principal sources of this discontent the system of government and feudalism, and points to the teachings of the philosophers as the great regenerative force in eighteenth century France. This fact is apparently the crux of the situation in the handling of these causes by the secondary teacher. In this connection it might be well to note the fact that Seignobos regards the Revolution as having a threefold origin, (1) in the absolute power of the monarchy, (2) in the existence of class privileges, and (3) in "the confused and barbarous organization of the government."^{||} It should be added, however, that he recognizes the financial situation as the immediate occasion of the Revolution. He refers to these conditions as having given rise to much criticism at the hands of the philosophers. Here again is a reference to the part played by the philosophers. An account of their activity will, with proper handling on the part of the teacher, supply the necessary element of coherence in welding together the factors which brought about the movement. Seignobos sums up the creed and influence of those eighteenth century philosophers in the following terse statements: "Society is badly organized; it must be changed. In order to change it

the will of the government is sufficient. . . . This became the rule in the politics of the eighteenth century. Applied by the statesman it was going to lead to a movement of reform throughout Europe; practiced by the subjects themselves in France, it led to the Revolution."[¶] Here is a suggestion of that third aspect of the Revolution which West emphasizes and which played so important a part in the days which followed the storming of the Bastille—resulting in the expenditure of a tremendous amount of effort toward changing the social system, and that, too, by legislative enactments. This idea, introduced here and later furnishes another means for securing a coherent treatment of the larger phases of the Revolution.

The ingenuity displayed by such writers as Voltaire, Rousseau, and Diderot in incorporating their ideas in all sorts of books, ranging from encyclopædias to novels, might be paralleled to some extent in the anti-slavery literature of the period before the Civil War. These literary productions of the French philosophers were cast in such attractive forms and were so brimful of wit and satire that they appealed to a large reading public. "Frivolous and uneducated men could read them without being bored and could comprehend them without effort." A little homily might be inserted at this point on the necessity of ideas in effecting great changes of this character, and their tremendous power for good or ill when embodied in such personalities as a Danton or a Robespierre. When the teacher begins to take up the different events of the Revolution, he can point out any number of instances where the suggestions of these philosophers lay at the foundation of the great changes which marked this new era. Even though Voltaire may not be given in morals "a clean bill of health," it is possible to point out the great services which he rendered France in his efforts to break the fetters forged by ignorance, superstition and intolerance. In this respect he may be compared to our own Thomas Paine.

One of the most discouraging features of such a method of presentation as has been suggested is the comparatively long time required in many cases to fix a few simple points. In attempting to secure the lodgement of an idea, rather than the mass of facts from which it is drawn, the teacher may be compared to the pioneer, blazing his way through an untrodden wilderness, overcoming obstacles which are apparently insurmountable. It should prove an interesting and at the same time a profitable experiment for the instructor briefly to summarize on paper the points which he has emphasized in a given recitation or series of recitations. It will be found that this can be done in most cases in a very few simple sentences. The student will in time become so accustomed to this method of handling facts that he will begin to make

^{*} Jaeger, Oskar, Teaching of History, p. 183.

[†] Mathews, French Revolution, p. 74.

[‡] Mathews, French Revolution, p. 90.

[§] Lowell, Eve of the French Revolution, p. 386.

^{||} Seignobos, History of Contemporary Civilization, p. 103.

[¶] Ibid., p. 75.

his own generalizations and reach his own conclusions without any guidance from the teacher. Who can estimate the value of a training like this by which he learns to value facts not for their own sake, but for their relation to other facts and the use to which they can be placed?

Literature.

Reference has already been made to two excellent books on the causes of the Revolution, Seignobos' "History of Contemporary Civilization," and Mathews' "The French Revolution: a Sketch." The chapter by Seignobos on the reform movement in the eighteenth century will throw con-

siderable light on the work of the philosophers. His chapter on the work of the Revolution will also prove helpful in answering the question as to what the movement really meant to the world. Lowell's "Eve of the French Revolution" is a more or less exhaustive discussion of the various conditions which led up to the Revolution. Morris' "The French Revolution and the First Empire" contains a short summary of the state of France prior to the Revolution which is suggestive because of its very brevity. A valuable portion of the book for the secondary teacher is the Appendix, which is devoted to a bibliography of the Revolution by Andrew D. White, with a

brief estimate of each book mentioned. As it was prepared in 1875, it does not include the recent literature of the subject. Carlyle's "History of the French Revolution" is too well known to be more than mentioned. Most of the books cited give the reader an excellent idea of the state of France as portrayed by the pens of contemporary observers. They also present in some detail the contents of the novels, pamphlets and philosophical writings of the period. Their summaries may be supplemented by the extracts to be found in Robinson, "Readings in European History," and in Robinson and Beard, "Readings in Modern European History."

American History in the Secondary School

ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., Editor.

THE MILITARY PROBLEMS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

Much as we may deplore it, the adolescent student finds his most vivid interest in history in the story of wars and civil contentions. Every experienced teacher of American history knows that to this day his pupils are more vitally interested in the story of the Civil War than in any other part of the history. Our problem, then, becomes one of finding out what there is in this story that is of value in training the student in the use of judgment and of reason. Too often the study is treated as a mere succession of events, full of dramatic incidents, but lacking any unifying principle. After several years of experimenting, we have finally adopted the following plan, and find that the results are more than satisfactory.

First of all, we treat the period between 1861 and 1865 under two distinct headings: (1) the civil history of the four years which includes an analysis of the resources of the two belligerents, the relation of the governments to the non-combatants (taxation, restraints upon the liberty of the individual, the enlistment of volunteers, etc.), the problem of slavery both in the border states and in the states of the Confederacy, and foreign relations; (2) the military history of the period. Needless to say, these two topics are intimately related; one can, however, establish this relation and then treat them, in their development, separately. In this article we shall try to show only how we develop the second topic. The first one we reserve for discussion at some later period.

In our teaching of the Civil War, we confine ourselves almost entirely to the consideration of its strategic problems. Only rarely do we consider the problem of tactics. Step by step we watch the advance or retreat of the two armies, and note the results accomplished. Only once or twice, in studying the siege of Vicksburg

or the campaign around Chattanooga, for instance, do we make any attempt to analyze the method by which battles were won or lost. From beginning to end we present the war to our pupils as a series of problems, and in their solution they take a most absorbing interest. Here in a general way are the problems presented.

First—Which side will take the offensive? The class which has studied the history of secession should have no difficulty in answering this question. In the words of Jefferson Davis, all that the South asked was to be left alone; therefore, if the North wished to maintain the principle of the indivisibility of the Union they must, of necessity, take the offensive. Yet since offense, when war has once begun, often becomes the best method of defense the class should be prepared to see the Confederate armies, from time to time, carrying the war into their enemy's territory.

Second—How is the North to accomplish its purpose? Here the class will be compelled to show that by the conditions which existed in the border states, the armies of the Union will have first to prevent these states from seceding. When this is accomplished the armies will be ready to take up their march into the heart of the Confederacy.

Third—What, then are the original frontiers between the two contending forces? Remembering that in April, 1861, when the war began, Missouri and Kentucky were still liable to secede, that in the western part of Virginia the sentiment was decidedly unfavorable to secession, this frontier can easily be established. It begins on the shores of the Chesapeake, follows the Potomac to the mountains, thence (roughly) down the Kanawha to the Ohio, thence to the Mississippi and up the Missouri to the western wilderness. This frontier, as the teacher who studies the history of the war in detail will find, is in several places slightly inaccurate, but for all

practical purposes it serves admirably as a basis of class-room discussion.

Fourth—From a study of the map, determine how many armies will the North be compelled to put in the field? Here some difference of opinion will arise. The whole class will readily agree on at least a twofold division of the field of operations. In the West, however, the problem is not so easy. Shall there be two armies, one operating south from the Ohio River along the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers, another operating along the Mississippi, or shall these two be combined and operate together? This difference of opinion among the members of the class should be encouraged. As a matter of fact, this same difference of opinion existed in the minds of the Union generals.

Fifth—What are the lines of attack which the armies will follow? This question necessitates a careful study of all the maps available. Mountains, rivers, valleys and railroads will be the determining factors. In the east, from Washington as the base of operations, there were four roads open into the South: (1) the road by water down the Chesapeake, and thence up the York and James Rivers to Richmond; (2) the road overland, or by water, to Fredericksburg, and thence by the Richmond and Fredericksburg Railroad to Richmond; (3) from Alexandria, by the Orange and Alexandria Railroad to Lynchburg in southwestern Virginia; (4) up the Potomac to Harper's Ferry and thence south through the Shenandoah Valley. As long as Richmond stood these last two were, however, unavailable. Had they been used the Confederate armies would certainly have made a counter attack upon Washington. On the other hand, these two roads up from western Virginia were constantly used by the Confederacy, often with disastrous results to the Union.

In the West, though the territory to be conquered was vaster, the lines of attack were simple. (1) In Missouri, the single line

of attack was naturally along the line of the Missouri River. When once the river was secured, the armies could and did operate directly south along the wagon roads and the few unimportant railroads till the state was completely secured to the Union. (2) There was the great highroad into the heart of the southwest formed by the Mississippi River. (3) From the Ohio River the armies would inevitably operate south through the valleys of the Tennessee and the Cumberland Rivers. (4) There were the railroad lines running south (a) the Louisville and Nashville, (b) the Memphis and Ohio, and (c) the Mobile and Ohio. These roads in turn connected with roads which ran east and west, and thus would serve as lines of attack and communication. Among these the class must identify (d) the Memphis and Charleston, and the (e) East Tennessee and Georgia. Many of these roads are indicated in the text-book, unfortunately the names are seldom given. The teacher who desires to identify them exactly is recommended to consult the maps in the larger histories.

When once these facts are mastered, the rest of the story is easy to follow. Contrary to tradition, we have abandoned almost entirely the study of the campaigns of the Eastern armies. The problem here is largely tactical, and consequently correspondingly difficult. Dramatic as is the story of the series of battles from Bull Run to the surrender of Lee at Appomattox, the fact remains that till the summer of '64 the armies of the Union had made absolutely no progress; by the time that Grant entered Richmond in the spring of '65, Sherman, the West and Southeast already having been captured, was already well on his way north through South and North Carolina.

In the West, on the other hand, the forward movement proceeded steadily, and with only two serious setbacks. Operations began simultaneously on the Ohio and on the Missouri Rivers. First St. Louis was saved to the Union, and then by a series of rapid movements the valley of the Missouri was captured. For a time the Northern armies were checked by the defeat at the battle of Wilson's Creek, but the following spring (March 7, 1862), at the battle of Pea Ridge the Confederate sources were signally defeated, and Missouri was saved to the Union.

While these operations were going on in Missouri, the Union troops had also occupied commanding positions on the Ohio; at Cairo, at Paducah, and at Louisville. Kentucky, at the beginning of the war, attempted to assume a position of neutrality, but, lying as it did between the forces of the Union and those of the Confederacy, such a position was impossible. Before the beginning of '62 the Union armies had begun their advance down the Mississippi to Belmont, up the Tennessee toward Fort Henry and Fort Donelson and along the line of the railroads toward

Bowling Green and Nashville. The first attack was made by Grant at Belmont, but the attack was unsuccessful (November, '61). Two months later, however, in January, '62, General Thomas defeated General Tollicoffer at Mill Springs on the upper Cumberland, and in February Grant and Foote took Donelson and Henry, and Nashville was occupied. Thus Kentucky was saved, and the Confederacy was forced back to its second line of defense, which ran from Memphis through Corinth and along the line of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad to Chattanooga.

In the western part of this territory the Union troops were again successful. Grant attacked the Confederates at Corinth (Battle of Shiloh, April 6th-7th), and with the help of Buell defeated them. Memphis was at once occupied, and the railroad east toward Chattanooga was opened. Meanwhile New Orleans had fallen, and thus only Vicksburg on the Mississippi was left to be captured.

Further east, however, the Union armies met with their first serious reverses. Under General Bragg, the Confederate forces occupied Chattanooga (July 31st, '62), and advanced straight toward Louisville, which they almost captured before Buell could intercept them. Not until the end of the year was this danger over. First at Perryville, Ky. (Oct. 8th), and then at Murfreesboro, Tenn. (Dec. 31st-Jan. 2d), Bragg was defeated and forced to retire into Chattanooga.

This left, in the spring of '63, just two important points in the middle west to be captured—Vicksburg and Chattanooga. For over six months Grant was busy operating against Vicksburg. Finally, on July 4th, the city fell, and the backbone of the Confederacy in the West was broken. Simultaneously, Rosecrans, who had succeeded Buell in command of the Army of the Cumberland, advanced against Bragg, but not till early in September was Chattanooga captured. But the triumph was a short one, in less than ten days the Union forces were beaten at Chickamauga, and Rosecrans was besieged in Chattanooga. Only by the strenuous efforts of the troops which Grant was able to bring from the Mississippi was the siege finally raised, and the Union army saved from capture. In the battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, Bragg was defeated and forced to retire southeast across the mountains into Georgia. Thus by the winter of '63-'64 the capture of the western Confederacy was accomplished. The western armies were now able to assist in the last stage of the conquest.

In May, '64, Grant moved south from Washington toward Richmond. Simultaneously Sherman, who now commanded the western armies, moved out of Chattanooga southeast toward Atlanta. Here an interesting question arises: why did he move southeast into Georgia instead of northeast into North Carolina and Virginia?

Why did he not endeavor to combine with Grant at once to crush Lee at Richmond? For four months Sherman operated along the Memphis and Charleston Railroad toward Atlanta. Finally in September, '64, he captured the city. Here he rested till November 15, 1864, and then started south on the famous march to the sea, entering Savannah just about a month later.

Thus was the Confederacy again divided. With the West practically conquered (the opposition in Arkansas and Texas, west of the Mississippi, was necessarily ineffective), with the East divided by Sherman's army, the end could not be long deferred. From December, '64, to April, '65, Sherman advanced steadily northward. On April 9th, when Lee finally surrendered at Appomattox, he was already within a fortnight's marching distance of Richmond. Two weeks later Johnston surrendered, and the war was over.

The story of the Civil War has been told so many times that the list of books is bewildering. Among them all, only a few need be mentioned: (1) Theodore A. Dodge's *Bird's-Eye View of the Civil War* is probably the shortest comprehensive account, but it fails to give the student any real perspective. Much better for this purpose is (2) John C. Ropes' "Story of the Civil War," but unfortunately this work was never completed. Of still more recent date are (3) G. F. R. Henderson's "The Science of War," which deals with the problems of the Civil War in Chapters VIII, XII, and (4) Wood and Edmonds' "History of the Civil War," which was written by two Englishmen. Excellent accounts of the military operations and of their civil concomitants may also be found in (5) Rhodes' "History of the United States," in (6) Hosmer's "Appeal to Arms" and "The Outcome of the Civil War" in the American Nation Series, and in (7) Nicolay and Hay's "Life of Lincoln." Invaluable and indispensable maps will also be found in most of these works. The teacher or pupil who desires to get his information at first hand will, of course, seek it in the numberless Memoirs and Autobiographies which were published after the war by its heroes: Grant, Sherman, McClellan, Lee, Johnston, and a host of others.

THE LAST FRONTIER.

In the Macmillan series of "Stories from American History," the most recent volume to appear is a work by Frederick L. Paxson on "The Last American Frontier." In this volume the author takes up the romance of the advance of civilization across the prairies of the West. Much has been written about this theme already, yet so big is the subject and so rich in material that it seems impossible to exhaust it. Mr. Paxson's work takes up the struggle with the wilderness from a somewhat different point of view.

History in the Grades

ARMAND J. GERSON, Editor.

The Battle of Bunker Hill.

A TYPE LESSON.

Two widely different, but by no means irreconcilable points of view prevail as to the object to be accomplished in teaching the story of a battle. On the one hand we find a certain group of teachers who hold to the opinion that causes and results constitute the only points of real historical significance: in regard to Bunker Hill, for example, they would contend that the only knowledge worth retaining consists of a comprehension of the conditions which led to that engagement and of the results which it produced. Another group of history teachers hold that the chief value of history in the grades consists in its pictorial and emotional aspects; they maintain that a clear mental picture of the battle of Bunker Hill, the exciting dramatic incidents of the fight, and, above all, an enthusiastic interest in the event, will furnish a boy of ten with a mental content and a history culture worth more than any amount of "historical causation."

Fortunately the two ideals here placed in contrast to each other are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Children in the grades are not too young to grasp the significance of causes and effects, and these must constitute a large part of their history knowledge. Equal emphasis, however, should be placed upon the pictorial phase of the work. And here we meet our initial difficulty. Pictorial treatment takes time, a great deal of time. It is manifestly impossible to present a vivid picture of every important battle and interesting incident of the Revolutionary War. A type-lesson may help to solve the difficulty. Many of the significant features of these various battles may be said to be typified in the battle of Bunker Hill. This fact, together with the relatively early date and great importance of that battle, lead us to select it for the purpose of our type-lesson.

However the various battles of the Revolutionary War may differ in importance of result and detail of event, they have one point in common: in each there was a conflict of Continental with British troops. Ridiculously obvious as this statement may sound, it is pedagogically important in that out of it grows the first type-element of our Bunker Hill lesson, i. e., a definite comprehension of the contrast in the discipline, equipment, and mode of fighting of the two armies. Lexington and Concord have presumably given our pupils some idea of this phase of the lesson. It finds a more emphatic context, however, in connection with the first real battle of the war. A good pictorial basis is furnished by the illustrations in some of our better text-books. The scarlet uniforms, the world-famed courage, and the

splendid discipline of the British regulars should receive their full share of attention. The wretched equipment and lamentable lack of experience or drill on the part of the Continentals furnishes a most effective contrast. A copy of "The Spirit of '76" may be easily secured, and will in itself constitute the best epitome of this part of the presentation.

The typography of the land about Boston and the strategic importance of the hills near that city may be said to constitute our next type-element. We do not mean to imply that the surface features of Eastern Massachusetts are in any sense typical of Revolutionary battlefields in general. Our point is merely that in all battles we must give consideration to the matter of physical background, an element which in large measure determines the character and frequently the outcome of the engagement. Our type-lesson must give due emphasis to this factor. For this part of the work a large map of Boston and its vicinity is an absolute necessity. Wall maps for this purpose are not always available, but blackboard drawings, supplemented by text-book maps and sketches made by the pupils may easily be made to answer. The class must be brought to appreciate the significance of Boston's situation on a peninsula and the strategic importance of the hills near by. The British troops, some 10,000 strong, occupied the city. To the south of Boston lay Dorchester Heights; to the north in Charlestown were Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill. The desirability of seizing and fortifying these points will appeal to the class immediately.

We have now prepared the stage and introduced the actors. There remains the most difficult, but by far the most interesting portion of the lesson, the telling of the story of the battle. Nor will mere telling, in the ordinary use of the term, suffice. The teacher must present the incidents of the fight in such form as to secure completely and hold continuously the attention of her class. Her pupils must forget schoolroom and teacher, and actually live the battle of Bunker Hill. Exacting as this requirement may sound to those who have not worked with young children, teachers in the grades will realize that no unusual qualifications are required to do this work effectively. The boy of ten loses himself easily in tales of thrilling danger, and what teacher has not felt the inspiration that comes from a listening audience of interested youngsters to whom Bunker Hill is brand new?

Every accessory in the form of pictures, poems, relics, etc., should be brought into requisition to facilitate the development of the story. Anecdotes and apposite incidents should be used generously, the

teacher bearing in mind that their significance is for the moment of much more fundamental importance than the matter of their historical accuracy. Atmosphere, local color, must be secured, at almost any cost. The numerous dramatic and epigrammatic speeches that have been put into the mouths of Gage, Howe, Prescott, Warren and the rest by some writers of elementary histories are of value in vivifying the story of the conflict. The presentation as here outlined is of course entirely oral. Text-book work will come later, and will be entirely supplementary in character.

The narrative falls into several quite distinct parts. First, there is the prompt action by which Prescott, aided by Generals Putnam and Warren, took possession of Breed's Hill and began throwing up defenses. By this action the very existence of the British in Boston was threatened. They must dislodge the Americans or evacuate Boston; their superior numbers and other tremendous advantages naturally led them to decide on the former.

The second stage of the narrative consists of the British advance up the hill under General Howe, their repulse by the Americans, the burning of Charlestown, the second assault of the British, and their second repulse by the defenders of the hill. We here reach the dramatic climax of the story. Interest, enthusiasm, patriotism, all unite to give to these stirring events the emotional background which will give them a meaning to our pupils all their lives.

Almost as effective from an emotional and patriotic point of view is the sad concluding phase of the combat. The Americans, hopelessly outnumbered, their ammunition exhausted, retiring slowly step by step, defending themselves with the butt ends of their useless rifles, furnish a picture fully as inspiring in its own way as the brilliant success of the early part of the engagement. The death of General Warren constitutes a telling incident in this phase of the story.

The fact of greatest significance as far as the results of this battle are concerned is of course its moral effect upon the people of the colonies. Our pupils must be made to feel that, although the Americans had suffered a defeat, the defenders of Breed's Hill had won a moral victory in that they had proved to their countrymen that a small band of men, untrained, poorly armed, vastly outnumbered, but fighting for a cause they knew was just, could manfully resist the world-renowned British regulars. Nor does this fact apply to Bunker Hill alone. It was a truth which was to become more evident as the long war progressed. We may then in a very true sense consider it as one of the most important type-elements of our Bunker Hill lesson.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, Editor.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

For the convenience of its readers and to stimulate the work of organization, THE MAGAZINE will print from time to time a list of the associations, with the names and addresses of the secretaries. Will our readers help us fill in the gaps, and keep us informed of changes in the secretarial offices?

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—W. G. Leland, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C., secretary.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.—J. N. Bowman, University of California, Berkeley, secretary.

CALIFORNIA.—Ada G. Goldsmith, Mission High School, San Francisco, secretary.

INDIANA.—Professor Harriet Palmer, Franklin, secretary.

MARYLAND.—Mr. Robert H. Wright, Baltimore, secretary.

MIDDLE STATES.—Professor Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, New York City, secretary.

MILWAUKEE CONFERENCE.—Informally organized.

MISSISSIPPI.—Mr. H. M. Ivy, Flora, secretary.

MISSOURI.—Professor Eugene Fair, Kirksville, secretary.

NEBRASKA.—Professor C. N. Anderson, Kearney, president.

NEW ENGLAND.—Mr. W. H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass., secretary.

NEW YORK (N. Y.) CONFERENCE.—L. R. Schuyler, City College, New York, secretary.

NORTH CENTRAL.—Mr. G. H. Gaston, Wendell Phillips High School, Chicago, secretary.

NORTH DAKOTA ASSOCIATION.—H. L. Rockwood, Enderlin, president.

TWIN CITY HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—W. H. Shepard, North High School, Minneapolis, Minn., president.

VASSAR ALUMNÆ HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—Adelaide Underhill, Poughkeepsie, secretary.

WISCONSIN.—Gertrude Hull, West Division High School, Milwaukee, chairman.

WISCONSIN ASSOCIATION.

The Committee on Organization and Program of the Wisconsin History Teachers' Association met in Milwaukee in January. The next regular meeting of the Association will take place in November in connection with the State Teachers' Association.

During the past year the list of speakers has included Professor Frederic J. Turner, on "What Should be Taught in United States History"; Professor Dana C. Munro, on "Methods in Medieval History"; Superintendent C. G. Pearse, on "Aims of High School History Teaching," and Professor George G. Sellery, on "What Constitutes the Change from Medieval to Modern History."

THE COMING MEETING OF INDIANA TEACHERS.

The Executive Committee of the History Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association met on Wednesday, January the 29th, in Indianapolis, and planned the program for April 29th and 30th, 1910, at Indianapolis. There will be three sessions: Friday afternoon, Friday evening, and Saturday morning. It is our intention to devote Friday afternoon to the discussion of history and civics in elementary schools in the light of the report of the Committee of Eight. There will be discussion of the needs in Indiana schools in the light of the report.

Friday evening the members of the Association will dine together at the Claypool Hotel. The evening session will be a joint session with the Indiana Historical Society, and the program will be popular in nature. Saturday morning, the session will be devoted to history in the secondary schools.

HARRIET C. PALMER, Secretary.

HISTORY SECTION OF CALIFORNIA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

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The annual session of the History Section of the California Teachers' Association was held at San Francisco, December 29th, 1909. Professor J. N. Bowman, of the University of California, presided. The first portion of the meeting was devoted to a consideration of the "Correlation of the Grade and High School History Teaching." Mr. I. D. Steele, of the San José High School, pointed out the need of greater training on the part of the grammar school history teacher. He recommended that history instruction in the grades be grouped about American history as a general subject, the treatment being largely biographical. He also considered some attention to European history possible in the upper grades. In the high school the methods should be more intensive. Besides the recitation room, there should be a "laboratory," equipped with lantern slides, drawing tables, models, etc. Miss Minnie Maher, of the San Francisco Girls' High School, believed that as the quality of work in both schools was improved the increased correlation would follow. The history work in the earlier grades of the high school should be in charge of the most skilled teachers and those who understand children as well as history. A departmental system in the seventh and eighth grades would help to bridge the gap between the schools. It would be advantageous if high school teachers could first have some experience as grammar school teachers.

The subject, "The Correlation of History with Other Subjects in the Teaching of His-



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REPRINTS

From

The History Teacher's Magazine

Many of the articles appearing in the MAGAZINE will be reprinted in small pamphlet form and sold for the price of five cents each, or four dollars a hundred. Those now ready are as follows:

AIDS TO THE VISUALIZATION OF HISTORY, by Charles A. Coulomb.

INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN HISTORY IN HARVARD COLLEGE, by Prof. C. H. Haskins.

INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN HISTORY IN VASSAR COLLEGE, by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon.

DIRECTIONS FOR WRITTEN WORK IN HISTORY CLASSES, by Prof. Mary Shannon Smith.

HISTORY SYLLABI, WITH A TENTATIVE LIST, by Prof. W. L. Fleming.

THE OLD SOUTH LEAFLETS CLASSIFIED, by Rex W. Wells.

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tory in the High School," was introduced by Professor E. D. Adams, of Stanford University. Professor Adams maintained that history, even if inadequately taught, is the greatest cultural subject, and must supplement all other subjects taught in our high schools. The historical aspect of the various subjects was discussed. Most of the classical authors studied in Greek, and Latin classes wrote on political themes. The classics teacher does not explain the terms used (consul, legion, ecclesia); therefore the history teacher must. It is an important fact that for twelve centuries Latin was the international language of Europe. There is a close connection between history and geography; influence of latter on former, *e. g.*; trade routes. Science teachers rarely point out the place of Roger Bacon in the history of science; most mathematics teachers fail to tell who Euclid was. Here is work for the history teacher. Zoology was made a true science by the Renaissance. It has been claimed that zoology destroyed the belief in witchcraft. For the sake of good history teaching, as well as for the great cultural value, this correlation should be made. Teachers should work out a scheme of contacts and teach it consciously. Mr. T. M. Marshall, of the Alameda High School, discussed the correlation of history and literature in the high school. Literature throbs with life, and should constantly aid history. The adolescent cares more for the concrete than

for the abstract, more for actions than facts. Literature may enliven history. Great literary periods should be taught as they are reached, not as an appendix. Mr. Marshall concluded by citing a large list of literary masterpieces especially valuable as illustrative of historical periods.

The general discussion of the papers brought out a statement that any "scheme of contacts" was hard to arrange for all pupils, since their preparation was unequal. The problem is not so much that of rearranging courses as it is one of unity. All teachers should understand the interrelations of all subjects. There is a great opportunity to teach grammar, pronunciation, spelling, in every recitation in the high school, especially in history classes.

In the business session that followed, a constitution was adopted, providing for two meetings a year. The following officers were chosen:

President, Prof. E. D. Adams, Stanford University; vice-president, Mr. J. R. Sutton, Oakland High School; secretary, Miss Ada G. Goldsmith, Mission High School, San Francisco, Cal.

THE NORTH DAKOTA TEACHERS' ORGANIZATION.

In January, 1908, an organization, independent of the State Educational Association, but supplementary to the State Historical Society, was formulated. The purpose as then

stated was to form a working center for the solution of such problems as confront the history teachers and, further, for the compilation of such material as will serve to increase the interest in our State's early history and preserve the same. To this end committees on publication were appointed, one for travel and adventure, one on biography and one for Indian mythology. The advantage of this can readily be seen by those acquainted with conditions here and equally readily imagined by those who stop to think that not only are the State's first settlers still living, but that the aborigines are also dwellers among us, some of whom remember the time when they were wild and free. These conditions furnish an abundant field for the most enthusiastically inclined student of ethnology. Indian villages laid out on the plans conceived by the "red man's" ancestors during the wild stage of his existence; mounds containing the skeletons and trinkets of this rapidly-disappearing race; and, above all, and more interesting than all, the mythology of this people; these are some of the things which furnish the material for the North Dakotan in his research work.

To those not acquainted with the mythology of our Dakota Indians it might be interesting to state that Greece and Rome give us nothing more wonderful, scarcely as interesting, and not nearly so real as can be heard in many of the Indian villages of the Dakotas these long winter evenings.

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In two parts: Pt. I, by Prof. Munro, Syllabus of Medieval History, 395 to 1300. Pt. II, by Prof. Sellery, Syllabus of Later Medieval History, 1300 to 1500. Parts published separately.

W. E. LINGELBACH: Syllabus of the History of the Nineteenth Century.....60 cents

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Another feature of the material mentioned above is arranging the same in child-story form to be used as supplementary reading matter in our public schools. So far but little in this direction has been accomplished. To overcome this and other difficulties resulting from a small membership, the organization was admitted to the State Educational Association as the Department of History, Civics and Social Science. (Social Science was used to include geography.) Last December the first program was given under the new arrangement. The interest shown at this gathering argues very favorably for the future success of this department. The field is certainly large and material abundant. The growing interest is inspirational. Excellent results must of necessity follow.

The writer was a little late in subscribing for THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and hence was unable to get all the back numbers. In those received, however, it is noticed that a closer relation between rural, grade, high school, college and university teachers is at hand. It is gratifying to us in North Dakota to know that we, unknowingly, were acting in harmony with this movement, as is shown by the following program given December 28th, 1909:

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, CIVICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES.

- Tuesday, December 28, 2 o'clock p.m.
President's Address—"Our Possibilities,"
Supt. H. L. Rockwood, Enderlin.
"High School Museums and What Can be Done with Them." H. C. Fisk, Bismarck.
"Making History Interesting to Those not Liking It." Miss L. Hedwig Bruhn, Enderlin.
"How Can the Teaching of History, Civics and the Other Social Sciences be Made More Efficient?"
(a) "In the Rural Schools"—Miss Gay Hall, Ward County.
(b) "In the Graded Schools"—Miss Phoebe L. Minsart, Minot.
(c) "In the High Schools"—Supt. W. A. Godward, Devil's Lake.
(d) "In the Teachers' Training Schools"—R. M. Black, Wahpeton.
(e) "In the University"—Dr. Wallace N. Stearns, University.

"A Summary and a Suggestive Plan of So-operation."

Paper—Prof. William B. Thomas, Jamestown.

Discussion—Dr. F. M. Gillette, University.

A committee was appointed with instructions to work out the following plan for mutual help:

Prepare blanks with outline of plan and instructions to members together with opportunities for asking questions. Those questions will be along the line: First, for information on the subject matter not within their reach (of especial benefit to rural teachers); secondly, for advice on different problems that may arise.

H. L. ROCKWOOD,

Superintendent of Schools, Enderlin, N. D.

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Department of History, Leland Stanford Junior University.

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N. M. TRENHOLME,
Head Department of History, University of Missouri.

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EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

I observe some teachers beginning the ancient history course with a book called "The Story of Ab." What value has the book?
TEACHER.

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

Will you kindly tell me where the following are published and by whom? (1) Tucker's "Life of the Ancient Greeks"; (2) Johnston's "Private Life of the Romans"; (3) "The Old South Leaflets."
G. A. T.

Ans.—Tucker's and Johnston's books are published by the Macmillan Company, New York; "The Old South Leaflets" are issued by the directors of the Old South Work, Boston, Mass.

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

I shall be pleased to have the following history course discussed in your magazine. It is a course for a city high school where at present it seems impossible to offer a four years' course, hence a three-year course is proposed (2 units required).

(1) Ancient history (required) to be given in the second year.

(2) English history (elective) in third year.

(3) American history, excluding civics (elective) in fourth year.

I shall be pleased to offer civics as a separate course in the last half of fourth year.

1. Do you favor ancient history in the second year?

2. Do you prefer English or modern history in general in the third year?

3. Do you agree that American history and civics should be separated?

D. C. SHILLING.

Hamilton, O., High School.

New Jersey Indians.

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

Please advise me as to the best detailed account of the Indians in New Jersey.

F. A.

Ans.—The Indian history of New Jersey possesses few of the dramatic elements which appear in connection with the relations of the whites and Indians in many of the other States. General accounts of the New Jersey Indians will be found in F. B. Lee's "New Jersey, as Colony and State"; in G. C. Lee & Thorne's "Definitive History of North America," Vol. I. Chaps. vi and vii. The Indians of the State belong to the Lenni Lenape division of the Algonquin tribes. There are many detailed treatments of the Lenni Lenape or the Delawares, as they are sometimes called. Special references will be found in Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," Vol. I. p. 325, and in Farrand's "Basis of American History" (Hart, American Nation, I), Chaps. x, xi and p. 283.

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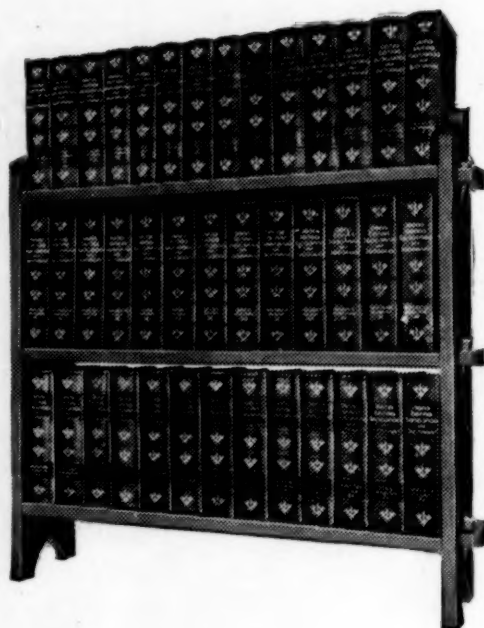
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